JANUARY-FEBRUARY 1964

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

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EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

JANUARY - FEBRUARY 1964

Vol. 1 Nos. 1 and 2

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY - U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

The reorganization of the United States Employment Service and the burgeoning responsibilities of the Federal-State employment service system in the entire field of manpower development and use have created an urgent need to strengthen and improve communications throughout the system. Thus there begins, with this issue, a new magazine devoted to employment service activities and interests. It is designed to serve as a valuable tool in unifying the nationwide network of public employment offices by providing a two-way channel for the exchange of ideas and experiences and by keeping those concerned with manpower aware of the needs and problems of the changing times.

Bureau of Employment Security, Robert C. Goodwin, Administrator
U.S. Employment Service, Louis Levine, Director

Challenge

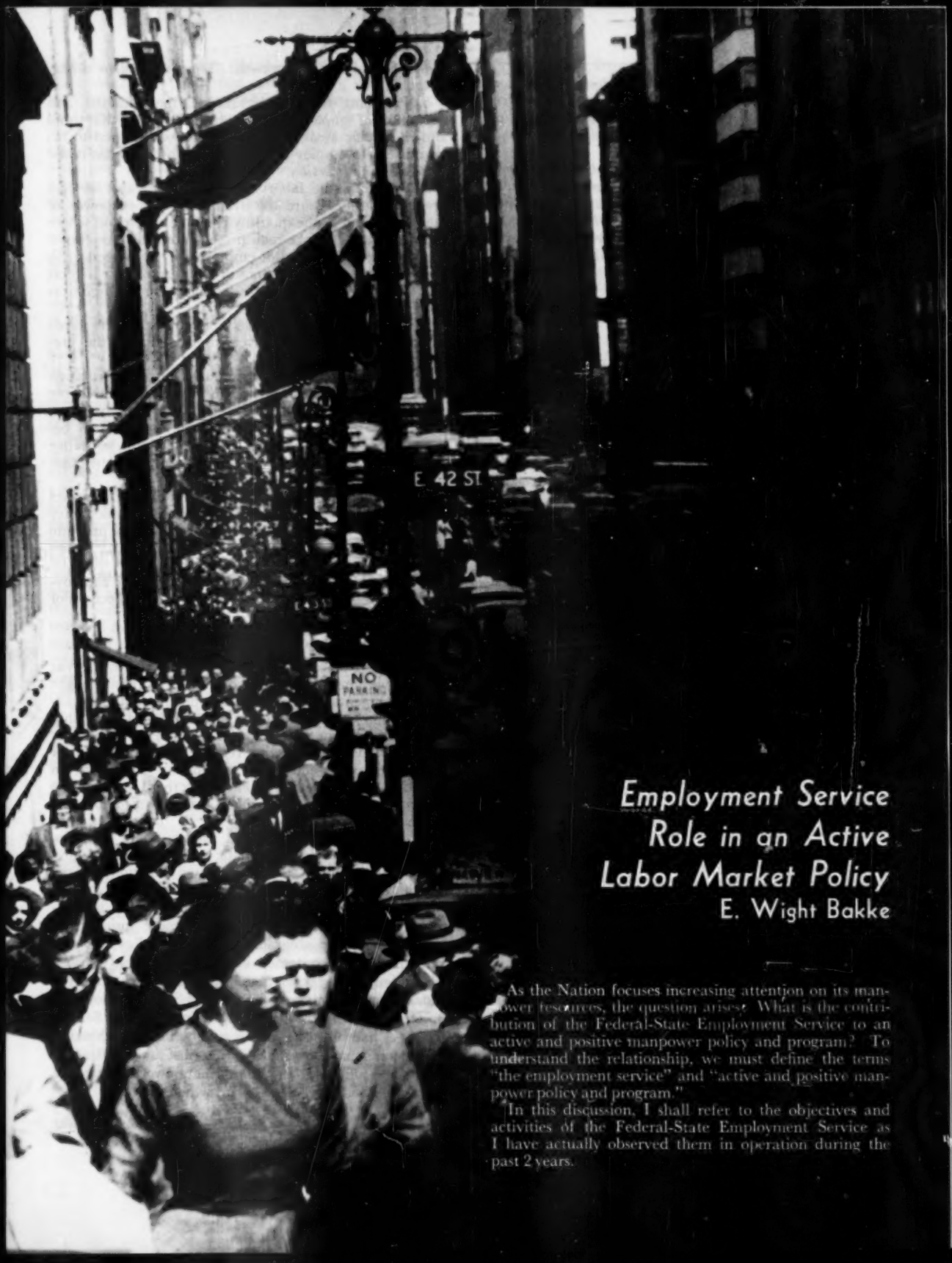
Over the years, the employment security system has faced many difficult problems within the realm of its responsibilities. This experience in coping with changing national needs is helping the system to meet confidently the challenges of today's rapid and dramatic economic change.

As automation increases, the need for unskilled labor diminishes: the sharp population rise swells the labor market with unskilled youth; and older workers with obsolete skills are pushed out. Agriculture's scientific advances eliminate thousands of farm jobs each year. Industries relocating or closing down leave in their wake depressed areas scourged with unemployment and ensuing personal hardships. In the face of these difficulties, all workers, including nonwhites, the educationally deprived, and other disadvantaged groups, must be given the means to achieve their rightful place in the American environment.

However, in this age of technological change and automation, there is an ever-increasing demand for professional and highly skilled workers. This demand, coupled with the speed of change, has created problems of such magnitude that there are no quick or easy solutions. The national concern is reflected in recent manpower legislative measures, the operational aspects of which are largely in the hands of the Employment Service. The broadened scope of its operations is transforming local employment offices into community manpower service centers. With this has come the move to separate physically employment service and unemployment insurance offices, particularly in the metropolitan areas, to enable each to give better attention to its specific job, and to give each a separate identity in the public mind.

This new magazine is a further manifestation of the Employment Service's important role in the national economy.

Robert C. Goodwin



Employment Service Role in an Active Labor Market Policy

E. Wight Bakke

As the Nation focuses increasing attention on its manpower resources, the question arises: What is the contribution of the Federal-State Employment Service to an active and positive manpower policy and program? To understand the relationship, we must define the terms "the employment service" and "active and positive manpower policy and program."

In this discussion, I shall refer to the objectives and activities of the Federal-State Employment Service as I have actually observed them in operation during the past 2 years.

E. WIGHT BAKKE, Sterling Professor of Economics and Director of the Labor and Management Center, Yale University, received his B.A. degree from Northwestern University and his Ph. D. degree from Yale University.

Dr. Bakke brings to the writing of this article over 30 years of observation of, and participation in, the development of employment and labor market services in the United States and Europe. He began his research career in 1931 with his ground-breaking study of unemployment insurance and the employment exchange system in Great Britain and has written a number of books on unemployment, the labor market, and industrial relations, the most recent being A POSITIVE LABOR MARKET POLICY.

The other term, "an active and positive manpower policy," is of recent origin. No consensus has yet been reached as to its specific meaning and content. These gradually will become more precise through action and experience. At the moment, an active and positive manpower policy is a goal rather than a set of ongoing programs that can be objectively verified by the activities and accomplishments of existing institutions and agencies. Nevertheless, I am faced with the necessity of setting forth what I mean by an active and positive manpower policy in discussing the relationship of the Employment Service to it. It is a policy whose objectives and functions are as follows:

1. *Basic objective*

It is the basic overall objective of an active and positive manpower policy and program to contribute to the amplification of the general welfare of the people of the Nation *insofar as that general welfare is dependent on the fact of, the resources for, and the productiveness, security, and voluntary character of the employment relationship.* It is, consequently, the function of the policy and program to increase the quantitative and qualitative adequacy and adaptability of (*a*) the labor force *and* of (*b*) employment opportunities, to (*c*) provide the labor market facilities essential to bringing supply and demand together in a way which promotes the economic strength and growth of the Nation and maximum self-realization in work for its people, and (*d*) to participate in the formulation and implementation of all aspects of general economic policy and practice at all points where they affect, or are affected by, manpower and employment factors.

The end objective, therefore, may be defined as full, productive, individual and national growth-producing, freely chosen, and personally secure EMPLOYMENT.

2. *Operating functions*

To achieve this basic objective requires that the following functions be carried out as parts of an integrated active and positive manpower program:

a. Providing for the maximum development of the productive and adaptive potential of the manpower resources required for personal, community, and national economic stability and growth. That is the *labor supply function.*

b. Providing for the stimulation, maintenance, and expansion of employment opportunities at specific times and in specific areas where these are, or threaten to be, insufficient to employ available manpower. That is the *labor demand function.*

c. Providing the labor market facilities and services needed to: (1) assure the availability of manpower of the quality and in the quantity required when and where it is needed; (2) make realistic the genuinely free choice of work by workers and of employees by employers; (3) assure maximum employment of workers at their highest productive potential. That is the *labor market organization function.*

d. Anticipating developing imbalances in the labor market and taking corrective action. That is the *preventative function.*

e. Providing adequate, useful, and timely information needed to guide employment providing and stabilizing action. That is the *research and information function.*

f. Providing economic maintenance for workers between periods of employment, and relocation assistance for workers willing to move to available job openings. That is the *economic benefit function.*

g. Cooperating with other private and public agencies concerned with community and national economic policy and practice in the overall effort designed to promote economic stability and growth. That is the *collaboration function.*

What, then, are the actual contributions of the Employment Service toward the achievement of the objectives of an active manpower policy?

Clarification of the Manpower Concept

In the first place, since the beginning of World War II, no government group has contibuted more in thought and experimentation to the development of the "manpower policy" concept than the personnel and leadership of the Employment Service. The objectives of manpower policy as developed by the World War II Manpower Commission, of which the Employment Service was an operating arm, were much narrower than those of the presently conceived policy. It was the Employment Service leadership which, out of its war experience, promulgated at the war's end the six-point program. This provided the first systematic statement from a government source of a set of integrated functions geared to achieving the most productive employment of the Nation's manpower. Moreover, no single set of governmental documentary sources reveals more insight into the meaning of an integrated manpower policy and program than those contained in the Employment Service publications and reports, and those used for the internal guidance and training of the Federal-State Employment Service personnel. By 1962, the Employment Service employees had been thoroughly oriented toward thinking of their job in manpower program terms; and the concept of the local offices as community manpower centers had been established as an ideal toward which to work.

During a period when the chief problem of establishing a manpower policy and program was, and still is, a clarification of the meaning of such a policy and program, the continuous effort of the Employment Service to orient itself in that direction, and to adapt its operations accordingly, must be considered a major contribution. It is all the more important because it represents no mere intellectual exercise, but an attempt to bring the lessons of first-hand operating experience to bear on the clarification of a central mission giving meaning and focus to a group of going services.

Contribution to Integration of Manpower Functions

Moreover, the Employment Service because it is making, as we shall indicate below, major contributions to all of the several functions in a manpower program, and is dependent on them for carrying out its own tasks, has had more experience than any other government agency in wrestling with the problem of integrating and coordinating all functions for the purpose of facilitating the employment relationship and making it more secure, productive, and realistically voluntary.

Since a major distinguishing mark of an active and positive manpower program is the integration and coordination of all the Services toward a definite end, that experience should be extremely valuable in revealing the problems involved and the paths to their solution. This experience is particularly relevant to the attempt at integration, given the existing Federal-State-local organization and administration of all of the individual services.

Furthermore, under the supervision of the Employment Service are the local employment exchanges which are the most likely centers for administrating an integrated manpower program at the grass roots. It is not necessary to claim for the Employment Service any outstanding success in creating successful integration at any level, from local to national, in order to see that its experience, both positive and negative, is highly relevant to achieving a more perfect integration if the dictates of organizational logic are to be made consistent with the constraints and opportunities of organizational result-getting operations.

Contribution to Other Services: Manpower Development

Now, let us see the contribution of the Federal-State Employment Service to each of the major functions essential to an active and positive manpower program. First, consider the development of manpower that is the function we have labeled labor supply. That function involves counseling and testing, stimulating and assisting a number of educational efforts and employer activities designed to develop occupational competence, and retraining and rehabilitation projects.

It is performed first of all by counseling actual or potential workers, of all ages and of all degrees of readiness to perform needed work, to determine the outlook for, and availability of job opportunities locally and nationally, and also, the course they could follow wisely in preparing for and seeking those opportunities. The Employment Service is the public agency which supplies this counseling. Because of the information it has on labor market facts and trends and the employment potential of the candidates for jobs, it is in a position to provide helpful assistance to clients, as well as to school and private services which also counsel with respect to employment.

The counseling is done by both employment officers and special counselors, some of whom, in the larger offices, center attention on groups with special employment problems, such as youth, the aged, and the handicapped. The counseling service is available to both the unemployed and the employed. It is based on the use of informational and analytical tools developed by the Employment Service. The picture of job opportunities is supplemented by the findings from research conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and by summaries of operating data and special research (e.g., area skill surveys showing current and projected demand by occupation, and an extensive job guide program by locality) gathered and promoted by the Employment Service itself. The picture of workers' qualifications is filled out

not only from data from employment and counseling interviews, but by the utilization of the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES and the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY, both developed by the Employment Service.

The development function also is performed by stimulating and assisting those in charge of general and vocational education efforts for youth, adult continuation education, and apprenticeship training, to be consistent in approach and program with the present and future demand for manpower skills and capacities. The contribution of the Employment Service in these fields (with the exception of apprenticeship, a responsibility of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training) is particularly evident in the active association of the local employment office managers with community groups interested in promoting economic stability and growth in their communities.

An essential foundation for this is the acquisition of the required working skills by present and potential workers.

in the future for expanding and profitable, and hence employment-producing, operation. Such increases in job openings are particularly promising in firms which today are small but have growth possibilities. These are just the firms which make minimal use of college placement services as presently operated.

The special counseling, testing, and training provided to the disadvantaged and hard-to-place influence not only the chances of their immediate relief from unemployment but the chances for their steadier and more continuous, and thus unemployment-reducing, employment.

The Annual Worker Plan for migrant agricultural workers and the systematic scheduling of tandem jobs reduces the number of times during the season that these workers become jobseekers. It reduces the length of their periods of unemployment between jobs, to say nothing of the advantage to employers in lowering their cost of operations and hence increasing the chance that they will continue to be able to offer job opportunities.

Another example of prevention activity is the advice and cooperation provided by the Employment Service to vocational education and training agencies on the basis of information available to the Employment Service concerning occupational and labor market circumstances, requirements, and trends. Such advice and cooperation offer these agencies the opportunity to make their curricula and procedures more consistent with these circumstances, requirements, and trends, and are obviously efforts of the greatest preventive value.

In this area, a much-needed contribution is the gearing of vocational education not merely to the immediate requirements for occupational skill, but to the long-range and basic preparation which will enable workers to make shifts in their skills when the occupations either are abolished or greatly modified in their skill content by the accelerating pace of automation and managerial science.

It should be obvious that the participation of Employment Service personnel in stimulating and taking part in forward-looking programs for community and regional industrial development is the highest kind of preventive effort in reducing the need for remedial effort tomorrow.

Whenever local Employment Service offices are forewarned on large-scale displacement of workers because of plant shutdowns or sizable technological changes, they have the opportunity to perform preunemployment analysis of the workers' qualifications and match them with local or extra-local job possibilities. To the extent that it is possible to place these displaced workers, their unemployment period can be minimized. There is great need for perfecting this advance notice of impending changes in the volume of employment (both impending surpluses and shortages) so that appropriate search and preparation for jobs and workers can be instituted.

Even a good placement, based on careful analysis of both the individual's qualifications and the job requirements, is a preventive of future, and sometimes almost immediate, unemployment.

Obviously, the basis for all of these preventive services is the continuous attention the Employment Service gives to all relevant aspects of the problem. These include: the study and analysis of specific job requirements; qualifications of the existing labor force; the impact of technological and managerial procedures on the structure and content of occupations; shifting industrial and geographical factors in work opportunities; and labor market conditions and trends. Preventive measures cannot be made effective without these tools.

These preventive efforts, currently being made by the Employment Service, are evidences of how far the actual character of the Employment Service has advanced beyond that of a remedial "labor exchange." The problem is that effort in these directions fits uneasily into a conception of the central role of an agency dominated by remedial and relief functions. Emphasis on these preventive functions is more appropriate to an agency directed toward the maintenance of positive economic health than to one charged with relieving the human suffering following upon economic sickness.

Contributions to Information and Research

In all of the above-named functions of an active and positive manpower policy and program, the need for adequate, useful, and timely information to guide both current and anticipatory, both short- and long-range employment-producing and stabilizing action has been obvious. And to the satisfaction of this need, the Employment Service, along with the Bureau of Labor Statistics, has provided the bulk of the contribution. The development of national labor market information is the logical outgrowth of data on a local basis, since individual action,

policies, and programs take place at the local level and are tailored to people and places. Local labor market information originates in the State employment security agencies and, in turn, it is they, together with local communities, who are the prime users. The extent and quality of the statistical information available for manpower planning programs from the research efforts of the Employment Service and the Bureau of Labor Statistics already have impressed foreign visitors as superior to those available in their own countries.

An important body of data in the United States about the present labor force and labor market conditions, and about probable short- and long-range future developments is supplied incidental to Employment Service routine operations. Also, contacts made through placement and order-getting activities enable the effective gathering of data concerning matters of critical importance for vocational education, occupational training and retraining, the progress and consequence of automation, and for anticipation of the occurrence and growth of labor surpluses and shortages. Especially important and worthy of perfecting have been the area skill surveys conducted in a large number of labor markets, setting forth anticipated needs for labor and the degree of probability that the facilities for training would be available. With all their shortcomings, it is likely that any usable prognostication of manpower and training needs essential to a positive manpower development and utilization program will have to be based on data flowing from surveys of this kind, with which the Employment Service has a considerable amount of experience.

Contribution to UI Administration

In recent years, the contribution of the Employment Service to another important function of an active and positive manpower program—the provision of economic benefits during intervals between periods of employment—has been an issue stimulating heated debate. The debate has arisen because of the alleged disadvantages to the effective operation of the Service—as a placement agency, from its close association and identification with Unemployment Insurance. This is still, in the minds of many people, an arrangement simply providing maintenance for the least employable of the labor force. This is not the place to attempt to correct that impression nor to balance the advantages against the disadvantages for the Employment Service of the close association. Suffice it to say that, without the certification through the efforts of the Employment Service as to the status of applicants for unemployment insurance with respect to the eligibility and disqualification requirements for the receipt of benefits, and the assurance that every possibility of applicants being reestablished in an employment relationship is explored, a function assigned to the Employment Service, the Unemployment Insurance system could not survive as a non-needs-test source of economic security for the unemployed.

The reorientation of the Unemployment Insurance system toward a basic and essential part of a positive manpower program effort to facilitate full, productive, freely chosen, and personally secure employment, rather than merely a more respectable form of unemployment relief, is a subject in itself. So is the development of more adequate economic maintenance provisions for unemployed workers during preparation for employment through retraining, and of removal and starting allowances reducing economic restriction on geographical movement to locations where jobs are available. In process is the rebuilding of the concept of the mission of all such economic benefits from being merely financial assistance for unemployed labor reserves to that of providing a necessary financial support ingredient in a positive effort to transform idle labor reserves into a productive labor force. But it will continue to be an essential contribution of the Employment Service to certify that the conditions are met for the receipt of such financial benefits of all kinds related to implementing a positive manpower and employment policy and program, conditions essential to their success in serving that purpose.

Collaboration With Other Agencies

As a major part of a positive manpower program, upon whose successful operation and achievement the success of all other parts depends, the utility of the Employment Service as a stimulator of and collaborator with other public and private agencies concerned with personal, community, and national economic policy and practice designed to promote economic stability and growth is self-evident. Indeed, the efforts of the Employment Service in collaborating with such efforts when instituted by community groups or agencies, and stimulating them when such community initiation is lacking, are major but insufficiently recognized contributions of the Service to a manpower-oriented effort in economic and social development, particularly in urban areas. Actually, it is so obvious that, sooner or later, problem-solving efforts in such areas as urban renewal, regional development, youth, the aged, the handicapped, and the like, depend on the understanding of, and efforts to meet the requirements for, establishing secure and productive employment relationships, that the Employment Service

has been challenged to make contributions beyond its financial and staff resources.

Summary

These, then, are the actual contributions that the Employment Service has made, and is making, to a positive manpower policy whose objective is to provide full, productive, personal and national growth-producing, freely chosen, and secure EMPLOYMENT. The Service provides essential support for every manpower effort, development of manpower resources, stabilization and growth of employment oportunities, preventive action, research and information, economic benefits, and collaboration. It has primary and sole responsibility for the operation of those public labor market facilities whose end objective is to bring the supply of, and demand for, labor together in an employment relationship optimally beneficial to the individual and the Nation.

It has the responsibility for, and long experience essential to, perfecting the Federal-State-local administrative system through which all elements of the manpower program can be focused on the employment problem wherever and whenever action is needed at every level from the national to the grass roots. And even more important, it has provided, and still is providing, leadership in clarifying the meaning of an active and positive manpower policy, and in wrestling with translating the concept into operational terms in the midst of all the practical circumstances that aid or inhibit the carrying out of an integrated manpower program.

I have not commented on the quality of those contributions. It should be as obvious as it is inevitable that, in the administration of a program employing 24,000 people in over 1,900 operating centers, quality will and does vary. Having had the opportunity to observe the quality of the Employment Service both at home and in Western Europe and Japan, I would like, however, to offer two conclusions. There is no industrial country among the free nations, with the possible exception of Sweden, in which the Employment Service approximates as closely to that quality required for being the key service in an active and positive manpower program as in the United States. The second conclusion is that great possibilities for improving that quality lie merely in bringing the performance, vision, and initiative potential in *all* operating centers up to the performance, vision, and initiative evident in the *best*.

The President's Budget Statement Stresses Employment Service Role

Administrative budget expenditures in 1965 for labor and manpower programs are expected to increase by $261 million over 1964, principally to provide training and employment opportunities for unemployed workers and youths.

To help cope with the problem of the more than 900,000 currently unemployed among our younger people, the Youth Employment Act was proposed last year and is awaiting final action by the Congress. This act will provide work and training through conservation work camps and work projects in local communities. The budget includes new obligational authority of $30 million in 1964 and $160 million in 1965 under this legislation, which will benefit an estimated 600,000 youth during 1965.

A persistent need exists to train unemployed workers in skills which will enable them to find productive employment. This budget provides for $165 million of appropriations for 1964, including a supplemental appropriation of $55 million, and a total of $411 million in appropriations for 1965 to finance the recently broadened and strengthened Manpower Development and Training Act program. The new amendments to the act will make it possible to train 135,000 unemployed workers in 1964 and more than 275,000 in 1965, including many youths found unqualified for military service. The 1965 total includes an estimated 60,000 workers and youths who will receive basic literacy training to enable them to go on to regular vocational training. In addition to the regular flow of workers who seek training, it is anticipated that more than 300,000 18-year-olds, found unqualified for military service, will be referred to manpower conservation units in the employment service.

The Federal-State employment service—financed through the unemployment trust fund—represents a key element in the total array of programs to assist unemployed workers in obtaining suitable employment. Between 1961 and 1965 total nonagricultural job placements through this service will increase by 28 percent. To continue strengthening the 1,900 local employment offices throughout the country—including special services for older workers—and to meet the cost of rising State pay scales, the budget includes an increase of $30 million in trust fund expenditures to $452 million in 1965. (Excerpted from President Johnson's budget statement to the Congress, January 21, 1964.)

MANPOWER TRENDS

Missile and spacecraft employment in 1963 remained virtually steady for the first time in 6 years according to the latest annual survey of this industry by the United States Employment Service. This survey is the only source of employment figures on this industry anywhere.

The missiles industry had grown steadily from 319,000 in October 1958 to 735,000 in August 1962. One year later, in August 1963, employment for the first time failed to register a gain, according to preliminary data.

Looking ahead 6 months from August 1963, missile and spacecraft employers forecast practically no change in their employment. This is in marked contrast to the forecasts of prior years when anticipated 6-month increases ranged from 4 to 10 percent.

The August 1963 forecast has special significance, since it was made prior to recent announcements by the Administration to economize in our national defense and space programs as well as in other areas.

The Nation is now considered to have built up the strongest strategic striking force in the world, and defense expenditures are expected in the aggregate to show a decline in the near future.

Implications of a leveling off in employment are considerable.

Until now, missile and spacecraft firms have constituted one of the Nation's largest employers of skilled, technical manpower. A sidewise trend would appear to relieve the nationwide pressure on recruitment.

Evidence of this trend was provided by September 1963 reports from 30 major labor market areas. These areas employ a significant number of scientists and engineers.

The reports revealed that these highly skilled professionals found a more relaxed job market in 1963

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than during the previous year. There was also a stiffening in employer hiring requirements as applicants' age, skill, length and type of experience, and education came under closer scrutiny.

Statistical support of the trend is furnished by openings available and the number of registered jobseekers at public employment offices. In these 30 major areas, between three and four engineering, scientific, and technician applicants were seeking jobs through the public employment service system for each job opening listed.

A year earlier, in September 1962, the ratio was only two to one.

This ratio has been sensitive in the past to variations in current demand and supply. In the spring of 1961, when the Nation was emerging from the economic recession of the previous year, the ratio of scientist and engineering applicants to openings was five to one.

Changed emphasis in defense spending--away from certain missile programs--may test the versatility of engineers employed on affected projects.

The years ahead may also see a smaller share of the Nation's critical supply of engineers and scientists devoted to defense needs.

There will be no lack of challenges, however, for engineers and scientists in the future.

The space program can be expected to employ increasing numbers of the Nation's technical elite.

Rapidly growing earthbound problems will claim their share of attention.

Urban renewal work is a growing activity.

Harnessing of water resources as evidenced by the formation of numerous water resource authorities will call for specialized personnel in engineering and related fields.

Air and water pollution control poses many technical challenges.

Refurbishing parts of the Nation's transportation system calls for specialists, particularly as urban sprawl and commuter difficulties increase.

Obligations to aid developing countries also create a need for the talents of many engineers and scientists.

Upgrading Counselors in Missouri

LeROY SCHANTZ and JOHN F. McGOWAN

The Employment Service and the State university cooperated successfully to improve the professional competence of Employment Service counselors. Specialized courses and training materials have been developed for use in formal training programs.

For a number of years the Employment Service had recognized the need for a more formal plan of counselor education and training. General policy in most States in the selection of counselors had been to take experienced and successful interviewers and appoint them as counselors. Experience with this group of counselors indicated that, while they were well acquainted with the use of occupational information as well as data about job requirements, they often were not trained in counseling methods and techniques.

In September 1958, the Bureau of Employment Security developed a procedure for ". . . specific personnel action to improve the employment counseling program." It provided suggested curriculum areas considered essential to the various levels of counselor competency. The Missouri agency accepted these standards and, in anticipation that funds would be available to implement them, sought to arrange for additional and more extensive inservice and outservice training programs.

No one training program or general approach seemed to meet the needs exactly, since the counselors who were working for the Missouri agency at that time formed a heterogeneous group in regard to their formal academic training. Three different approaches seemed necessary. Some of the ES counselors could profit from inservice training; others could best make use of courses offered at colleges and universities throughout the State; others seemed to need immediate training which would best be provided through intensive short-term training institutes. All three approaches were used eventually.

During the summer of 1958, 18 ES counselors enrolled in a 5-week intensive training program at Washington University in St. Louis. This program followed the curriculum outline developed by Professors Hoyt and Muthard of the University of Iowa. This course took care of immediate ES needs for emergency upgrading. Attention was then turned to the development of a more inclusive and long-term training agenda.

The most logical place to secure help in training counselors appeared to be the University of Missouri, which had been training counselors for many years and had a qualified staff. In addition to its large curricula designed to prepare people for work as high school counselors, the University also offered programs to train vocational rehabilitation counselors and school personnel specialists. It also offered an American Psychological Association-approved training program in counseling psychology at the doctoral level. Representatives of both the Employment Service and the University were designated and a plan of operation was established.

One-Week Workshops

To meet the needs of the ES counseling staff for continued self-improvement and to insure that counselors could qualify under a new State personnel division classification for counselors, a series of 1-week, outservice training programs were introduced. These workshops were held on the Columbia campus of the University, one in 1960, two in 1961, two in 1962, and one in 1963.

These programs were planned to cover the five major areas of employment counselor preparation outlined in the 1958 standards. They were attended primarily by local office counselors who were attempting to meet the State certification requirements established on the basis of suggested Federal standards. They did not receive academic credit for the courses, but were credited with 1 hour of "equivalent" training under the State merit system.

The experience of the University staff engaged in counselor training strongly suggested that formal classroom preparation needed to be supplemented with supervised practice counseling. At the last three workshops, there were four half-day practice sessions conducted in counseling and observation rooms equipped with one-way mirrors, loud speakers, and tape recorders. To supplement this training, the agency purchased five portable tape recorders for the use of counselors. The counselors recorded counseling interviews and played them back for their own benefit to learn what obvious errors were being made. The next interviews recorded were then evaluated by the counselor using a "Counselor Evaluation Check List," patterned after one used by the University, but adapted to fit the employment counselor's situation.

Later on, taped interviews were evaluated by the local office and central office counseling supervisors. Each counselor attending the semiannual workshops at the University of Missouri was required to bring a taped interview to the workshop for evaluation.

During this period, 26 counselors were enrolled in courses at various colleges and universities for regular academic credit. Board, room, tuition fees, and books were paid for by the Employment Service for the six

John F. McGowan is Professor of Education, University of Missouri, and LeRoy Schantz is Director, Missouri Division of Employment Security.

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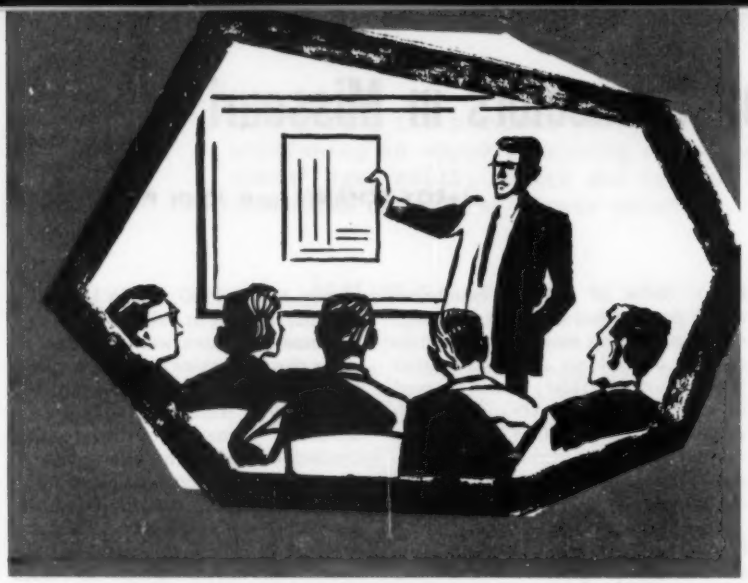


counselors enrolled in summer school on a full-time basis. They were also carried on full salary for this period.

These programs have continued in operation up to the present time.

Present Activities and Future Plans

By the summer of 1963, it became apparent that a new evaluation was needed to determine how adequately the training programs described above were meeting current needs. Several influences and social forces either not in existence or not adequately recognized in the earlier situation were complicating the job of counselors working in an employment service setting, and they were increasing the demand for professional quality counseling services. These increasing demands were brought about by several different yet interrelated forces. The first of these was related to continuing but accelerated changes in the manpower structure of the economy; the second, to the personal impact on the individual worker of certain technical changes in methods of production; and the third, to the effect of certain State and Federal legislation. Specifically, they included: (1) The effect of the population boom; (2) the number of women workers reentering the labor market; (3) changes in industrial mobility; (4) automation and all of its effects; (5) changes in the demand for certain types of complex skills; (6) increased services to youth, (7) the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961; and (8) the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and its provisions for selection, testing, and counseling of trainees.

A series of meetings was held between university and Employment Service personnel. A committee was appointed by the ES Director, made up of the training officer and two supervisors responsible for the training and supervison of counselors, to work with the university representative. As an outcome of these meetings, it was determined that there were three different areas in which further action was needed.

1. Teaching Material

Need was recognized to develop a body of counseling knowledge which, in addition to providing basic information common to all counseling, would emphasize the *unique* problems faced by a counselor working in an employment service office.

As a result, a contract was negotiated between the two agencies for the University to survey all of the training material now available and to prepare two training manuals. These manuals are now in preparation and should be finished by the summer of 1964.

One is a general manual entitled "An Introduction to the Role and Duties of the Counselor in the Employment Service Program"; and the second, intended to deal more specifically with counseling technique, is entitled "Counseling Theory and Technique for Employment Service Counselors."

Much of the material that will go into these manuals will come from information published by the Federal Government and other State agencies in the form of manuals, training units, and other publications related to counselor training. The material will be edited, organized, and rewritten into a manual suitable to meet the needs for inservice and outservice training and orientation training of new counselors.

2. Academic Training

The need was recognized to develop a graduate training program designed to train counselors for work in employment service offices that could be covered in approximately 30 semester hours of academic course work. Standard course offerings in counselor preparation could form the core of the training program, but it was apparent that certain essential revisions and curriculum additions were necessary to train counselors who would be prepared to handle problems unique to public employment offices. It was agreed that the following types of courses contained material basic to counselor preparation and performance regardless of setting: Statistics, tests and measurement, personal adjustment, mental hygiene, psychology of adolescence, etc. Certain other courses, however, needed to be modified and revised so as to emphasize material of specific interest to an employment service counselor. These courses included: Introduction to employment service counseling, counseling methods, employment service counseling seminar, supervised counseling practice, etc.

It was agreed that certain courses could be used as they were now being taught but that others would have to be substantially modified or new courses would have to be organized. The counseling practice part of the training could best be taught in actual employment service settings. (A list

of the final curriculum offerings is available upon request.)

It was decided that employment service counselors could complete the 30 semester hours in four summer sessions starting in early June and ending the first week in August. A planned sequence of summer offerings will allow counselors to start training at the beginning of any summer session. These students will enroll in graduate school and, therefore, must meet regular standards for admission. The University of Missouri does not charge tuition at the graduate school level.

The Employment Service will bear the cost of additional staff that will be required to offer the courses and, in addition to paying for board, room, books, fees, and supplies, will carry the counselors on full salary.

3. Counselor Reclassification

The need to reclassify employment service counselors and increase salaries accordingly was recognized. Experience has shown that unless salaries are commensurate with knowledge and skill, the turnover of personnel becomes so great that little value is received from an upgrading program. This necessitated writing new specifications in keeping with the job demands and training of the employment service counselor. It was decided that entry classifications on two levels would be necessary. The first classification (Counselor I) would require a baccalaureate degree which would serve as a basis for further training and, by not requiring specific courses, would allow for better recruitment. There would be a 1-year probationary period, after which the counselor could continue in this classification as long as he made satisfactory progress toward satisfying the educational requirements for the next classification.

The second classification (Counselor II) would require a baccalaureate degree and 30 graduate hours with training in the specific areas indicated above. Again, a 1-year probationary period would be required.

The third classification (Counselor III) would include all the educational requirements stated above, with supervised practice in employment service counseling and 3 years of counseling experience with a minimum of 1 year at the Counselor II level. The Counselor III would share responsibility for the internship training of other counselors and have functional supervision of the Counselors I and II.

The upgrading program as described above, while a step in the right direction, is not a panacea to all of the program problems. While it is not the purpose of this paper to dwell on these problems in general, certain related problems deserve some mention here. The counselor does not work in isolation; rather he is part of a team dedicated to the proposition that the employment agency is a manpower service agency concerned with the labor market needs of the community, the State, and the Nation.

It would, indeed, be presumptuous to think that by raising the counselor qualifications *alone* a substantial contribution could be made to this end. The training needs of all the staff must be recognized.

Pursuing this philosophy, the Missouri agency at the 27th Annual Meeting of the Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies at Omaha, Nebraska, was instrumental in proposing and drafting Resolution 10, which was later adopted by the members of the conference. In essence, it recognized the responsibility of the Bureau and the State agencies to provide leadership and training for all employment security personnel and stressed the urgency of meeting this responsibility if the demands of economic growth and expanding programs are to be met.

While the policy of the Missouri agency is for a continuing, year-round training program for all professional level staff, the most apparent and immediate training need is for counselors. The Director is aware of the problems attendant on this emphasis, since counselors already are looked upon in the Agency as "fair-haired" employees receiving preferential treatment. Moreover, upgrading could result in more turnover, once additional skills are obtained, unless salaries are increased, too. There is a reluctance to accept or appreciate academic background or professional competence as compared with line or supervisory responsibility when adjusting pay scales. There is a lack of appreciation of counseling needs by many small local office managers. As a result, counselors must frequently do regular interviewing and placement or claims activities, leaving too little time to do what they are trained to do. This discourages the professional counselor and also causes other employees to feel that they are doing the same work and getting less pay.

To maintain professional standing, upgrading of qualifications is essential. The work of an employment counselor has a somewhat different emphasis, and academic training must be directed accordingly. Reclassification and better pay are essential to attract and keep employment service counselors. The Missouri agency has served too long as a training ground for counselor for other employers.

Older employees, those 35 to 60, have proved more stable and acceptable to counselees than younger counselors, with the possible exception of youth counselors. Much of the recruitment can come from ES people, school counselors, and people in private employment who have the training, desire, and aptitude to do counseling work.

The Manpower Development and Training Act strengthens the Employment Service as the manpower service center of the community. Attendant on this act is a greatly increased need for counseling, second only to training itself. Good counseling can inspire and motive those who really need it, and help the individual to help himself.

Invitation to Other States

The participation of other States in this program is invited. The first graduate class will begin June 1964 on the University of Missouri campus at Columbia, with 30 enrollees. It is hoped that one-third to one-half will come from neighboring States. The groundwork for increasing the number and quality of counselors in Missouri has been laid. Other States concerned about this need have perhaps already started to do something about it. A sharing of experiences would be mutually helpful.

CHANGING COMMUNITIES

Area Labor Markets Improve

As 1964 began, the labor market situation in the Nation's major industrial and employment centers showed some improvement over the corresponding period a year earlier. Moderate over-the-year employment gains were reported in most of the 150 major labor market areas surveyed by the Bureau of Employment Security. In the aggregate, employment advanced by 1.6 percent in those areas.

Despite the overall employment increase, total unemployment in most of the major areas remained virtually unchanged, and their average monthly unemployment rate for the first 11 months of 1963 showed no significant variation from 1962 levels.

The January 1964 classification of major labor market areas according to their relative labor supply reflects the overall labor market changes which have occurred during 1963. Of the 150 areas regularly classified by this Bureau, 111 areas were in moderate unemployment categories, compared with 106 in the corresponding month last year. During the year, 11 areas were removed from categories of substantial unemployment because of significant reductions in total unemployment and a general improvement in local economic conditions. Among others, these include such large auto and steel centers as Birmingham, Gary-Hammond-East Chicago, Detroit, Steubenville-Weirton, and Youngstown.

On the other hand, deteriorating labor market conditions in six important durables manufacturing areas—Newark, San Jose, Seattle, South Bend, Tacoma, and Waterbury—caused their shift to a classification category denoting substantial unemployment.

A comparision of the January 1964 classification of the 150 major areas reporting to the Bureau of Employment Security, together with those for comparable periods over the past few years are shown in the table.

Lowest average unemployment rates during the first 11 months of 1963 were reported for Cedar Rapids, Des Moines, Richmond, and Washington. Nine other areas had jobless rates of 3 percent or less. On the other hand, monthly unemployment rates in such chronically depressed areas as Altoona, Fall River, Johnstown, Scranton, and Wheeling continued to average 10 percent or more as a result of longterm employment cutbacks in coal mining, steel, and textiles.

Nonfarm wage and salary employment in the 150 major areas expanded by 579,000 over the 12 months ending November 1963, with most of the gain occurring in nonmanufacturing, chiefly trade and construction.

Despite the continuing inroads of automation, employment in the auto industry increased moderately over the year, with largest gains in the key Detroit area, and significant advances in auto and related employment in Atlanta, Fort Worth, Kenosha, Lansing, and San Francisco-Oakland. Cars produced in 1963 totaled 7.6 million, about 700,000 more than in 1962, as sales of U.S.-made cars and trucks reached an alltime high.

A small net increase in employment was reported in steel-producing centers over the year ending November 1963, chiefly in Pittsburgh. Other areas, such as Baltimore; Chicago, and Gary-Hammond-East Chicago also recorded gains in steel employment. In the related fabricated metals industry, a moderate over-the-year employment increase was centered mainly in plants supplying the construction and automobile industries. The largest advances took place in the Cleveland, Detroit, Los Angeles-Long Beach, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh areas.

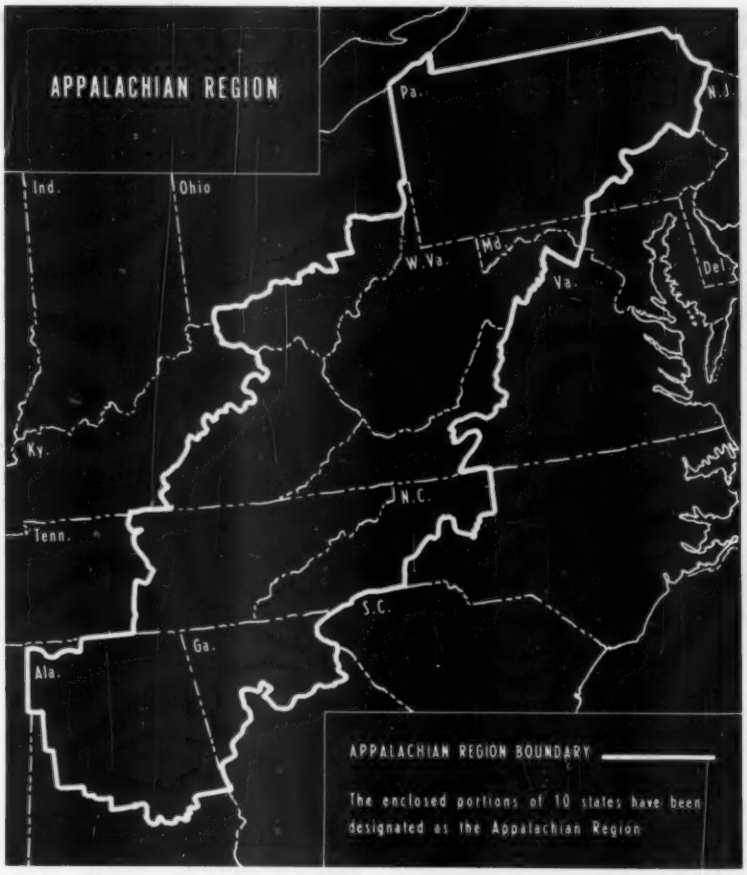
Labor supply group	January			
	1964	1963	1962	1961
Total, all groups...	150	150	150	150
Group A.....	0	0	0	0
Group B.....	13	7	4	4
Group C.....	98	99	85	70
Group D.....	30	31	47	49
Group E.....	7	9	10	21
Group F.....	2	4	4	6

Significant over-the-year losses occurred in electrical machinery centers (mainly in Boston, Chicago, Newark, New York City, Philadelphia, and Syracuse), apparel (Boston, New York City, Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, and Philadelphia), shoes (Binghamton, Boston, and St. Louis) and textiles (Manchester, New Bedford, Providence-Pawtucket, and Reading). Aircraft employment also declined over the year, notably in Los Angeles-Long-Beach, Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, San Diego, and Seattle, while down-trends in Baltimore and Philadelphia yards accounted for most of a small net loss in shipbuilding.

In December 1963, it was announced that the Studebaker auto plant in South Bend would be permanently closed. At the end of the year plans were disclosed for curtailed production of missiles and the closing of a number of Navy shipyards and other defense installations. The full impact of these developments will not be known for several months, however.

On the basis of area employers' hiring plans, as reported to local public employment offices in the Nation's 150 major labor market areas, nonfarm employment is likely to undergo an overall slight advance to early spring, with seasonal patterns playing an important role. Gains are expected in nearly three-fourths of the 150 surveyed areas, and the overall increase is expected to be somewhat greater than that which occurred between January and March last year. Advances in nonmanufacturing employment—paced by a seasonal upturn in construction—are expected to be slightly larger than those scheduled in the factory sector.

—*Branch of Area Labor Market Reports.*



Appalachia—Focus on a Depressed Region

MARTIN ZIEGLER

This is the first of two studies dealing with the problems of the Appalachian Region. The role of the Federal-State Employment Service in the economic development programs for Appalachia will be discussed in a future issue.

Declining industries, rural poverty, and substantial and persistent unemployment in a 10-State area. It's a depressing picture which points up the need for Federal-State cooperative efforts to restore the economic base of the region.

On April 9, 1963, the late President John F. Kennedy established the President's Appalachian Regional Commission (PARC) to develop a comprehensive program for the economic development and recovery of the Appalachian Region. In creating this body, the President called attention to the need for a special type of program which would go beyond conventional area redevelopment planning, in order to provide more immediate and direct help to the region. The importance of this problem was underscored by the Conference of Appalachian Governors, which had been organized 3 years earlier. Its statement of purpose emphasized that "a special program of development is required and justified in terms of both the necessity to treat the human need and the opportunity to realize the region's potential to contribute to its own and the State and national economies."

Includes Portions of 10 States

Extending from northern Alabama and Georgia to northeastern Pennsylvania, over an area of 165,000 square miles, the Appalachian Region comprises the entire State of West Virginia and parts of Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and Virginia. The region contains 342 counties, including 19 standard metropolitan statistical areas, of which Pittsburgh, Pa., is the largest. Other metropolitan areas with a population of 250,000 or more are Birmingham, Ala.; Charleston, W. Va., and Huntington-Ashland, W. Va.-Ky.-Ohio; Chattanooga, Tenn.; and Allentown-Bethlehem, Easton, Erie, Harrisburg, Johnstown, and Wilkes-Barre–Hazelton, Pa. In addition to the Appalachian Mountain Range, from which the area derives its name, the Blue Ridge Mountains and the Allegheny and Cumberland

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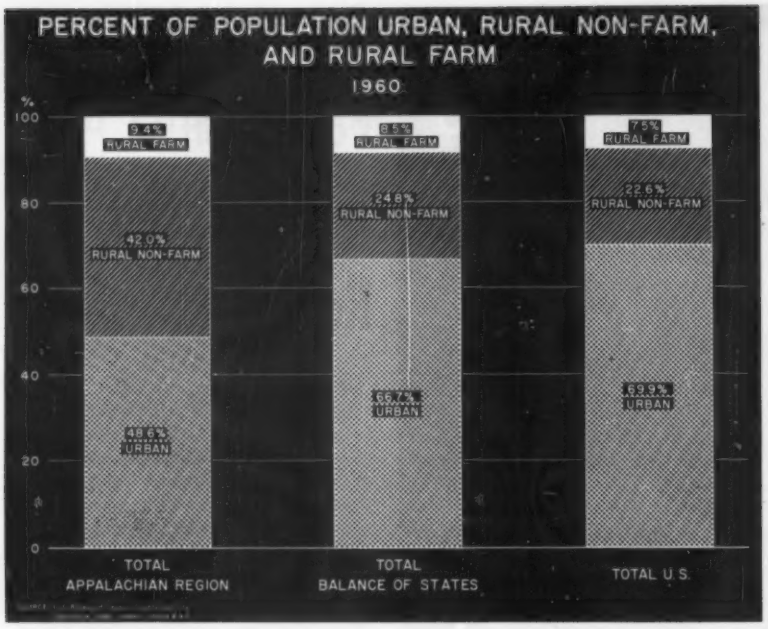


Plateaus cut across sections of the region.

The President's Appalachian Regional Commission is chaired by Franklin D. Roosevelt, Jr., the Under Secretary of Commerce, and consists of representatives of Federal and State agencies and the Conference of Appalachian Governors. To facilitate its work, the Commission appointed seven major task forces or "teams"—Human Resources, Physical Resources, Water Resources, Highways and Transportation, Staff Operations, Comprehensive Program Development, and the Appalachian Regional Institute Team.

The Human Resources Team—members of which include the Department of Labor's United States Employment Service and the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Department of Agriculture—is identifying additional employment and labor market services and educational, training, health, and welfare programs which are needed in the region to make the labor force more productive and enable the population to be self-sustaining.

The Commission submitted a comprehensive economic development plan for Appalachia in December 1963. Recommendations embodied in the report were geared to two coordinated goals: (1) the creation of an immediate program of action which could be implemented early in 1964, and (2) the development of a more comprehensive program which could be implemented over a longer period of time.

While the problems of the Appalachian Region are not of themselves unique, since many other areas throughout the Nation have been plagued by chronic unemployment, they deserve special attention because of their scope and long-standing nature. Because of its peculiar topography—the region includes extensive mountainous terrain and swamplands—Appalachia has long been popularly regarded merely as a geographic barrier between the eastern seaboard and the Middle West. Partly as a result, many rural sections of the area exist in economic and social isolation.

TABLE 1.—*Population of Appalachian States—1960*

State	Number of persons		Percent in Appalachia
	State total (thousands)	Appalachian portion (thousands)	
Total, in States	48, 325. 1	15, 611. 4	32. 3
Alabama	3, 266. 7	1, 884. 5	57. 7
Georgia	3, 943. 1	675. 0	17. 1
Kentucky	3, 038. 2	853. 7	28. 1
Maryland	3, 100. 7	195. 9	6. 3
North Carolina	4, 566. 2	776. 8	17. 0
Ohio	9, 706. 4	743. 9	7. 7
Pennsylvania	11, 319. 4	6, 565. 4	58. 0
Tennessee	3, 567. 1	1, 599. 2	44. 8
Virginia	3, 966. 9	456. 6	11. 5
West Virginia	1, 860. 0	1, 860. 0	100. 0

NOTE: Totals may not add to sum of parts due to rounding.

Source: 1960 Census of Population.

Most of Appalachia Is Rural

Perhaps one of the major deterrents to industrial expansion, and an important factor contributing to the lack of economic and cultural opportunities in the region, is its largely rural population. Of the approximately 15½ million people living in the Appalachian Region, about two-fifths reside in 19 major metropolitan areas which dominate much of the region's economic activity (table 1). Except for these urban centers, few large communities or identifiable industrial centers are located in the region. Of the 342 counties in Appalachia, about two-thirds can be classified as rural areas. The rural

nature of the region is even more striking when its population is compared to the Nation as a whole. While 70 percent of the Nation's population lives in urban areas, less than half (49 percent) of Appalachia is urbanized.

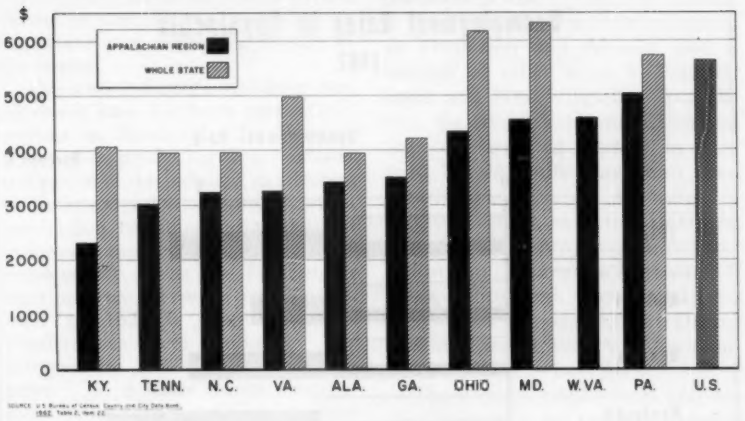
In 1962, according to data collected through the area labor market information program of the USES and affiliated State employment services, the Appalachian Region accounted for about 8 percent of the Nation's work force and 13 percent of the unemployed. In absolute numbers, around 500,000 workers were jobless, representing about 8.8 percent of the region's work force. This compares to a national average rate of 5.6 percent for the same period. The 19 standard metropolitan areas in the region fared somewhat better, on the average, than the more rural sections of the region (table 2). With a work force numbering close to 2.8 million, Appalachia's metropolitan areas registered an average unemployment rate of 8.1 percent, or 1.4 percentage points below the average for the remainder of the region. In each of the metropolitan portions of the 10-State region, the relative levels of unemployment were lower than—or as in Kentucky no greater than—the entire State portion of the Appalachian area.

Between 1960 and 1962, the number of jobless workers in the region declined by 7 percent. However, the drop in the level of unemployment was not indicative of any real improvement in the region's economy, since total employment failed to rise. Instead, the unemployment decrease was attributable primarily to labor force withdrawals—because of early retirement or the outmigration of many workers who were compelled to move to other areas in search of more favorable job opportunities.

This pattern of outmigration, which is reflected in the region's declining labor force, has been an inherent feature of Appalachia since the turn of the 20th century. Except during the depression years of the 1930's, young people and experienced workers have been leaving the region because of the lack of job opportunities. According to the 1960 census, 314 of the 342 counties in the Appalachian Region experienced a population outmigration in the previous 10 years.

MEDIAN INCOME BY STATE

APPALACHIAN REGION COMPARED TO WHOLE STATE



Unemployment Far Above National Average

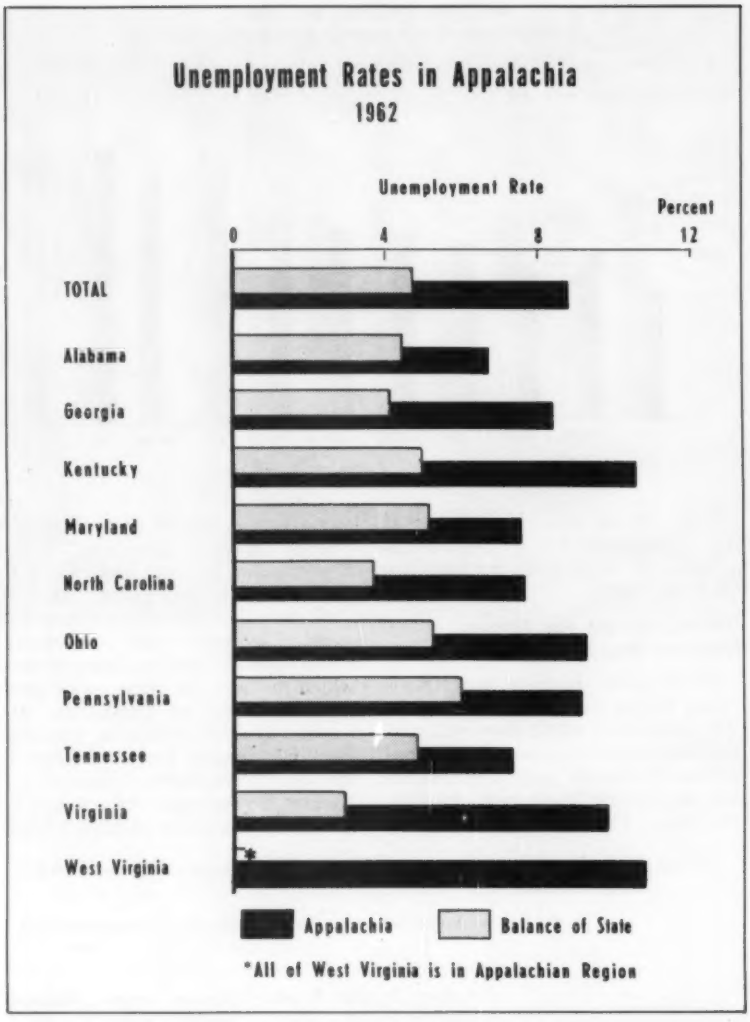
While unemployment was significantly higher in Appalachia than in the country as a whole, there was considerable variation among the Appalachian States in both the severity and the nature of their unemployment problems. USES data show that the Appalachian portion of 6 of the 10 States—Georgia, Kentucky, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia—had unemployment rates in 1962 which exceeded the national average by more than 50 percent. Pennsylvania's Appalachian section—which includes the eight major metropolitan areas of Pittsburgh, Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, Altoona, Erie, Harrisburg, Johnstown, Scranton, and Wilkes-Barre–Hazleton—accounted for over half of the total joblessness in the entire 10-State region.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated work force and unemployment in Appalachian Region by State—1962*

State	Work force [1]		Unemployment [1]		Unemployment rate	
	Number (thousands)	Percent change 1960–62	Number (thousands)	Percent change 1960–62	Appalachia [1]	Balance of State [2]
Total	5,730.3	−4.3	506.0	−6.8	8.8	4.7
Alabama	700.3	−0.6	46.6	−9.2	6.7	4.4
Georgia	202.7	+3.5	17.0	−5.3	8.4	4.1
Kentucky	198.2	+3.5	21.0	−16.4	10.6	4.9
Maryland	82.8	+1.3	6.2	−27.1	7.5	5.1
North Carolina	280.5	−1.0	21.2	−13.9	7.6	3.7
Ohio	239.0	−1.7	22.3	−4.8	9.3	5.2
Pennsylvania	2,737.0	−6.0	253.0	−4.6	9.2	6.0
Tennessee	561.6	−1.2	41.0	+2.0	7.3	4.8
Virginia	123.4	−4.1	12.1	−6.4	9.8	2.9
West Virginia	604.8	−5.1	65.6	−10.1	10.8	[3]

[1] Appalachian portion of State.
[2] Portion of State outside of Appalachia.
[3] All of West Virginia is in Appalachian Region.

Source: United States Employment Service and affiliated State Employment Security Agencies.



All told, 199 of the 342 counties in Appalachia were officially classified by the Bureau of Employment Security as "areas of substantial unemployment" in November 1963.

Perhaps equally indicative of the severity of unemployment in Appalachia is the difference between the rate of unemployment in the Appalachian portion of a State and the unemployment rate for the entire State. In each of the nine States partially in Appalachia—all of the State of West Virginia is in Appalachia—the relative level of joblessness in the Appalachian portion of the State during 1962 was substantially greater than the unemployment rate for the remainder of the State (table 3). Appalachian areas in Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia registered unemployment rates of 9.8 percent, 7.6 percent, and 8.4 percent, respectively. In contrast to this, statewide unemployment averages exclusive of the Appalachian portion of these States were comparatively low—Virginia, 2.9 percent, North Carolina, 3.7 percent, and Georgia, 4.1 percent.

West Virginia (10.8 percent) and eastern Kentucky (10.6 percent) ranked highest in unemployment among the 10 States in the Appalachian Region. The economies of both States are closely linked with developments in the bituminous coal industry. (See "Coal Mining Jobs—Is Turning Point in Sight?" page 44.)

For several decades, coal mining in West Virginia and eastern Kentucky provided employment for thousands of workers. As a result of recent technological improvements in mining techniques and growing competition from other fuels, employment in the coal mining industry has been continuously shrinking. Since 1948, when West Virginia's postwar peak employment level of 138,100 was reached, 90,000 jobs have been eliminated in this industry. In the past 5 years alone, 22,000 West Virginians were displaced in the bituminous coal industry. Similar patterns of worker displacement and employment cutbacks have been experienced in eastern Kentucky.

While a number of counties in the Appalachian Region have virtually exhausted their coal resources, there is enough coal in the area—at the current rate of use—to last for many years. The major problem in Appalachia's coal mining regions has been not a lack of natural resources but a drop in consumer demand—fostered by competition from other sources of fuel—and the increasing use of machine power, rather than manpower, for extracting coal.

Trouble in Anthracite

Since a considerable proportion of the country's bituminous coal operations and all of its anthracite resources are centered in the Appalachian Region, worsening economic conditions in the coal mining industry have had a major impact on the economies of the other States in the area. Pennsylvania's Appalachian area is the Nation's chief supplier of anthracite coal. Anthracite coal production has been declining almost continuously since its peak in 1917, mostly because of a shrinking market. Pennsylvania's anthracite coal production has dropped from 89.6 million tons in 1920 to 18.1 million tons in 1960. The development of oil in the 1920's and natural gas in the 1930's as home

heating fuels deprived anthracite coal producers of their most important markets. Nationwide consumer demand has dropped to the point where Pennsylvania itself now consumes half of the hard coal it produces.

Mostly because of these cutbacks, unemployment in the Appalachian section of Pennsylvania represented 9.2 percent of the labor force in 1962. The decreasing demand for anthracite coal has had a particularly severe impact on the Scranton and Wilkes-Barre–Hazleton areas—key anthracite centers in this region.

Pittsburgh and Johnstown have also been affected by cutbacks in bituminous coal mining operations. Unemployment in these two areas has increased, but to a lesser extent than in Scranton and Wilkes-Barre–Hazleton because of their more diversified economies.

The factors contributing to the economic depression of four other major areas in Pennsylvania—Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, Altoona, Erie, and Harrisburg—are not primarily attributable to the coal mining industry. In Altoona, local unemployment problems are due primarily to cutbacks in the railroad industry. In Erie, employment reductions in several durable goods industries have been the cause of the local problem. Harrisburg and Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton have fared somewhat better than some of the other areas in the Appalachian Region of Pennsylvania; despite substantial employment cutbacks in the important steel industry, expansions in other industrial segments have left these areas in a relatively stable position.

Other Appalachian States have also been adversely affected by coal mining mechanization and decreasing consumer demand. Virginia's Appalachian region, which ranked third highest among the State areas with an unemployment rate of 9.8 percent, the Cumberland and Oakland areas of Maryland, and parts of Tennessee and Alabama have also experienced severe economic setbacks stemming from the postwar depression in the coal mining industry.

While the Appalachian Region is the Nation's chief supplier of coal, it looks to the steel industry for most of its jobs. Pittsburgh, Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, Birmingham, Wheeling, and Weirton are the more important steel producing centers in the region.

The steel industry's shrinking employment base has been particularly evident in Pittsburgh, the Nation's largest steel producing area. Decentralization of the industry, in addition to the introduction of more advanced production techniques, has resulted in lower manpower requirements and employment levels in Pittsburgh's steel industry. From a post-Korean level of 162,600, employment in Pittsburgh's steel industry has dropped by 45,000 in the past 10 years. To a lesser extent, employment reductions have also been experienced in the steel centers of Birmingham, Wheeling, and Weirton.

The railroad industry is also an important source of employment in the Appalachian regions of Pennsylvania and West Virginia. The impact of difficulties experienced by railroads nationally, due to the shift to diesel engines and the tremendous growth in automobile and airplane transportation in recent years, has resulted in sizable employment retrenchments in Pittsburgh and Altoona and a number of other areas in Pennsylvania and West Virginia. In addition, the drop in coal production and the corresponding decline in railroad freight traffic have also been contributing factors. According to the 1960 census, close to 50,000 jobs were lost in Pennsylvania's railroad industry in the previous 10 years. Of these, Pittsburgh accounted for 11,000 and Altoona, 7,000. During the same period, West Virginia's railroads cut back by over 9,000.

The data on employment and unemployment in the preceding section reflect only one aspect of the manpower problem of Appalachia. Underemployment, concentrated largely in rural sections of Appalachia, is also an important factor contributing to the economic depression of the region.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated work force and unemployment in standard metropolitan statistical areas in Appalachian Region—1962*

State and area	Number in work force (thousands)	Number unemployed (thousands)	Rate of unemployment (percent)
Total, SMSA's [1]	2,787.5	226.5	8.1
Alabama:			
Birmingham	242.5	15.4	6.4
Gadsden	30.8	2.7	8.8
Huntsville	62.8	1.7	2.7
Tuscaloosa	36.8	1.5	4.1
North Carolina:			
Asheville	53.6	2.7	5.0
Ohio:			
Steubenville-Wierton [1]	62.6	3.4	5.4
Pennsylvania:			
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton [1]	221.3	12.2	5.5
Altoona	52.3	5.4	10.3
Erie	96.4	7.4	7.7
Harrisburg	169.5	8.7	5.1
Johnstown	89.6	13.1	14.6
Pittsburgh	931.9	87.0	9.3
Scranton	97.5	11.2	11.5
Wilkes-Barre—Hazleton	129.6	13.6	10.5
Tennessee:			
Chattanooga	117.9	9.2	7.8
Knoxville [1]	142.7	7.3	5.1
West Virginia:			
Charleston	92.5	6.5	7.0
Huntington-Ashland	88.2	9.2	10.4
Wheeling	69.0	8.3	12.0

[1] Includes part of area not in Appalachian Region.

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According to the 1960 census, the median income of the Appalachia sector of each of the States in the region was less than the average for the Nation as a whole. Each of the Appalachian areas of Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia had a median income level at least one-third below the national average. In addition, 94 of the 342 counties in Appalachia have been designated as redevelopment areas by the Department of Commerce on the basis of low income criteria or as rural redevelopment counties. This is in addition to the 180 areas designated on the basis of the existence of substantial and persistent unemployment.

Even in areas where unemployment is relatively moderate, underemployment is a significant problem. Of the 38 counties in the region with an unemployment rate below 4 percent, according to the 1960 census, 7 had a median family income below $2,000, and 24 had a median family income which was two-thirds below the national average. In only 3 of the 38 counties with moderate unemployment was the median family income above the national average.

Low labor force participation among Appalachia's residents—indicative of the general lack of job opportunities in the region—is also a major factor contributing to the low family income levels in the Appalachian States. In the Appalachian portions of Kentucky, for example, less than 39 percent of the population 14 years of age and over were employed, or looking for work, at the time of the 1960 census. This compares to a national rate of labor force participation of over 55 percent. The Appalachian sections of Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia also had participation rates which were at least 5 percentage points below the national average.

One of the major factors limiting the development of a comprehensive analysis of the more important economic and manpower characteristics of Appalachia is the lack of detailed information on the current labor market situation and the manpower resources in the region. Without more knowledge of the quantity and quality of the labor force, it is difficult to plan intelligently for the future economic development of the region.

There is an urgent need for more current and precise information on job opportunities in the area and the availability and training potential of the region's labor supply. One recommendation of the President's Appalachian Regional Commission is that the Employment Service undertake a program to compile and disseminate labor market information on a current basis for the Appalachian Region and its subregions. In addition, it is contemplated that a number of special studies will be made periodically to determine more precisely the occupational structure of the available labor supply.

OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

Testing the Undereducated

BEATRICE J. DVORAK

The USES General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) has been a valuable tool in the appraisal of the vocational potentialities of candidates for training under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Area Redevelopment Act. Many of the hard-core unemployed, who have the greatest need for training to become employable, have been unable to take the tests, however, because of their educational deficiencies. Lacking adequate basic skills in reading and arithmetic, they have been unable to meet the minimum requirements for entry into many of the vocational courses offered. To compound the difficulty, this lack of basic education is also an impediment to determining their latent talents and potential for acquiring the requisite reading and arithmetic skills through prevocational literacy training.

To meet this problem, the USES Branch of Occupational Test Development, in cooperation with a number of affiliated State agencies, has expanded its research. Experimentation is directed toward: (1) utilizing tools for appraising the vocational potential of individuals regardless of their education; and (2) assessing the amount of literacy training they may require as a prerequisite for vocational training. These experiments will involve new applications of tests in the GATB, alone or in combination with nonverbal intelligence tests now on the market.

The 12 tests of the GATB measure nine vocational aptitudes: Intelligence, verbal aptitude, numerical aptitude, spatial aptitude, form perception, clerical perception, motor coordination, finger dexterity, and manual dexterity. Occupational aptitude pattern norms for the GATB have been established for 35 families of occupations covering over 800 individual occupations. Of the 12 tests, 8 require no reading or arithmetic ability. These provide measures of spatial aptitude, form perception, motor coordination, and finger and manual dexterity. Norms for nine families of occupations covering about 450 specific occupations can be applied to aptitude scores based on the eight tests which require no reading or arithmetic ability. Included are such occupations as machine tending and operating; assembling, inspecting, packing, and testing; sew-

Dr. Beatrice Dvorak is chief of the Branch of Occupational Test Development in the United States Employment Service.

On this page are some exercises in finding the two words which have either the SAME meaning or OPPOSITE meanings.

Look at exercise 1.

ANSWERS

(1) 1. big 2. large 3. dry 4. slow — 1 & 2

Big and large have the SAME meaning. Therefore, 1 and 2 have been written in the answer column.

이 검사는 4개의 말중에서 같은뜻 혹은 반대의 뜻을 가지는 두개의 말을 찾아내는 문제 입니다.

문제 1번을 보시오.

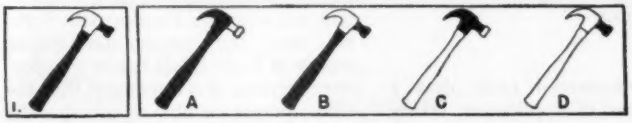
답

(1) 1. 젊은 2. 불명예한 3. 특특지 않은 4. 높은 — 2 , 3

이 문제에서는 2의 「불명예한」과 3의 「특특지 않은」이 같은뜻의 말입니다. 이때는 답란에 2 , 3 이라고 씁니다.

On this page are some exercises in comparing figures.

Look at exercise 1.



ANSWER

A

B ✓

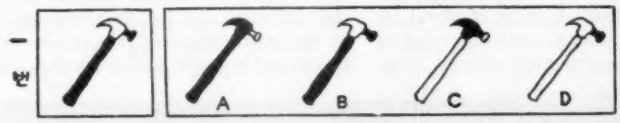
C

D

Notice that only figure B is exactly like figure 1 at the left. Therefore, B has been checked in the answer column.

이 검사는 기계연모의 도형을 비교하는 문제 입니다.

1번의 문제를 보시오.



답

A

B ✓

C

D

이 문제에는 오른쪽의 A, B, C, D, 4 도형중에서 B도형만이 一번의 왼쪽 도형과 세칠이 같읍니다. 그러므로 답란의 B에 √표를 합니다.

These are all items from the GATB. The strange ones are from the Korean edition of the GATB. It is easy to do the vocabulary exercise in English because we can read English, but it would be impossible for most of us to give the correct answer in the Korean language. This gives some notion of the problem of the educationally deficient who lack reading ability. In contrast, even if we could not read the instructions for the Form Perception item showing drawings of hammers, we could complete the item if the instructions were given orally, because once the task is understood, no further reading ability is required to complete the item. This is the type of nonreading test on which an undereducated person is not at a disadvantage.

ing machine operation; spot welding; and canning and preserving occupations. MDTA and ARA courses have been established in many of these occupations.

Most of the occupational training courses offered, however, require substantial amounts of skill in reading and arithmetic. With prevocational literacy training, many of the educationally deficient who have the intelligence to acquire those basic skills could qualify for entry into the more technical courses.

A nonreading measure of intelligence is being developed for those who lack sufficeint literacy skills to take the GATB tests measuring intelligence. Nine State Employment Services (California, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, North Carolina, Utah, and Wisconsin) are participating in the research needed to develop such a measure. Seven of these States tested about 470 individuals of relatively low education with an experimental test battery consisting of GATB tests and two commercially available nonreading tests of intelligence. These tests contain subtests of figure series, figure classification, figure matrices, reasoning, and information. The scores on these tests plus those on the GATB nonreading tests, are being analyzed to determine which combination of tests has the highest relationship to the GATB measure of intelligence. In the other two States, the nonreading tests were administered to about 80 individuals who do not have basic literacy skills, and the scores are being analyzed to determine their suitability for testing the educationally deficient.

From the results of the analyses, a nonreading measure of intelligence will be made available for use in testing candidates for training who do not have sufficient literacy skills to take the GATB tests that measure intelligence. Research in this area will continue toward the ultimate objective of developing a USES nonreading edition of all the tests in the GATB.

A survey is also being made of tests available on the market for basic literacy skills to select appropriate reading and arithmetic achivement tests. The tests selected will be used to (*a*) identify those who already possess the amount of basic literacy skills required for suitable vocational training and (*b*) determine the school-grade level of reading and arithmetic skills of those who need additional literacy training to meet the requirements of suitable vocational training.

Use of these new testing procedures by the Employment Service will make the training programs more effective in the development and use of the Nation's human resources.

St. Louis Guides Youth to Jobs

ALLEN J. KELSAY and MARIE MAXWELL

The St. Louis Youth Demonstration Project is one of two set up by the USES in cooperation with State employment services.

The purpose of the projects is to study the characteristics and problems of youth seeking employment and to develop programs and procedures to improve services to this group.

In its 1961 report, the President's Committee on Youth Employment placed particular emphasis on the problems of unemployed youth in the large metropolitan centers of the country. To develop new approaches to these problems, the United States Employment Service made plans to establish two youth demonstration projects, one in Newark, N.J., and the other in St. Louis, Mo.

St. Louis, with a population of nearly 2 million, has highly diversified industrial and business activities. The variety of training and educational facilities available offered a potential for helping to solve some of the problems of its many unemployed and disadvantaged youth.

Preparation for the demonstration project began in January 1962. Generally, it was designed to improve employment office services to youth in the St. Louis area and to develop materials and information for the continued improvement of service. The project included the development of appropriate methods, procedures, and techniques within the Employment Service. It also involved gathering labor market information to determine job opportunities for young people, further study of individual and group characteristics of youth seeking employment, and identification of the barriers to their obtaining employment.

In order to accomplish these ends, 44 positions were established, including administrative, technical, and clerical personnel to be situated in the main office of the Missouri Division of Employment Security in the downtown St. Louis office.

These people have had both successes and failures in attempts to fulfill the purposes of the Youth Demonstration Project. In certain instances there has been nothing more than a confirmation of common thoughts regarding the employment problems of, and services needed by, youths; in other instances new means have been developed to overcome these problems.

Intake

It was discovered early that a group method of application taking would have to be developed. Youthful applicants came in such large numbers—over 28,000 in the first year—that it was impossible to devote the amount of time necessary to complete a satisfactory application for each individual. Groups of about 10 were taken into a conference room where a tape recorder and an overhead projector were used to describe and demonstrate the application process. The tape recording explained to the youth the services that he would receive and what would be expected of him. The recording also instructed him on how to fill out the application card. An interviewer was available to answer questions. This process took approximately 25 minutes. Upon completion of the group orientation and application process, a completion interview was held with each applicant by an intake interviewer. When the applicant load is lighter, of course, the group method is not used.

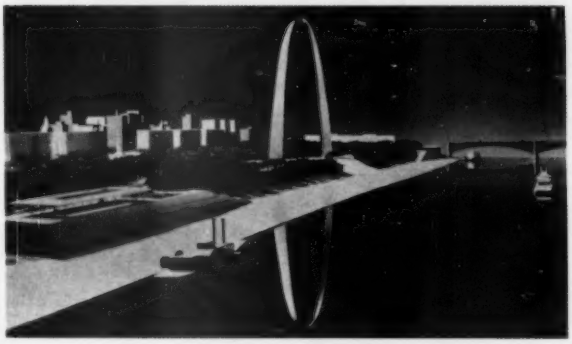
The youth interviewers are presently making efforts to study and improve their own interviewing techniques. Since these staff members are the first contact that the applicant has with the Employment Service, and the application taking process is basic to all future employment services, it is important that the intake person be able to describe the other services adequately to the young applicant as well as to employ various interviewing techniques to obtain necessary information from the different types of youth.

Adopting a method for studying the interview that has long been used by the counseling staff, the intake interviewers began to make tape record-

A counselor discusses MDTA training with a youthful applicant.

Allen J. Kelsay is Supervisor of Youth Programs, Missouri State Division of Employment Security. Marie Maxwell is Supervisor of the St. Louis Youth Demonstration Project.

YOUTH in the ST. LOUIS LABOR MARKET



MISSOURI
DIVISION OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY

ings of their interviews, with the applicant's permission. In the beginning, the interviewer listened to his own recordings, alone, to get accustomed to the idea and to have the opportunity to make improvements that he recognized as necessary. When he became more comfortable with his recorded interviews, he listened to them with the intake supervisor, who offered suggestions and discussed possible weak points. This method has been working out very satisfactorily. Interviewers make an effort to improve their techniques and the recordings may be used for training in such areas as methods of referring youth to training and helping youth to recognize their employment problems.

Placement

The youth placement staff of the demonstration project is assigned to each regular placement unit. The St. Louis Office follows an industrial-occupational system under which placement for all applicant groups is provided from several placement units. Youth staff working in these units preselect, refer, and place all youthful applicants served by the specific unit. Other staff members assist as necessary. The Youth Placement Technicians frequently cross unit lines to confer with their counterparts in other units. When no suitable job openings exist, they do job development and job solicitation. Of some assistance in this has been the Youth Employment Opportunities Survey conducted in the Greater St. Louis area at the beginning of the demonstration project which was designed primarily to learn something of the hiring patterns of employers of young workers.

Youth Characteristics and Problems

Certain project staff members are assigned to work with groups of young people who have common problems. These staff members have been primarily responsible for collecting data on the kinds and extent of problems faced by these special groups and for describing their specific characteristics. The major groups so identified are the dropouts and the potential dropouts; the in-migrant youths who come most often from the rural areas of Missouri to seek work in the city; the inschool youths who are potential labor market entrants; the juvenile offenders; and the posthigh school youths, who have no marketable skill and have not established stability of employment.

Dropout

For purposes of demonstration project service and research, a dropout is defined as a youth who has left school in the last 6 months, although, of course, all dropouts receive regular local office service. From the beginning, youth staff members have aimed at getting the dropout back to school, when this is thought desirable by providing assistance in obtaining part-time employment through the placement units when possible, and by stressing the need for education in order to compete successfully for employment.

From the followup that has been done on those dropouts who came into the office, it is indicated that fewer than 10 percent have returned to school. Further research is expected to provide more insight into this problem.

The most outstanding special service that the project personnel have been able to offer the dropout is referral to the special Manpower Development and Training Project designed exclusively for dropouts. This project offers intensive counseling, training, and placement efforts that have proved most satisfactory to date. Trainees are provided remedial instruction and prevocational work with metals, machinery, wood, and electrical operations. During the prevocational period, each youth is evaluated to determine his aptitudes and interests preparatory to placement in a specific course at the conclusion of the prevocational period.

A good deal of work has also been done with potential dropouts, as identified by school personnel, in some of the schools in St. Louis and St. Louis County. For many youths, this has resulted in placement on part-

time jobs that provide some financial assistance. Lack of finances appears to be one of the significant reasons for leaving the school. When this situation was alleviated, the student was able to remain in school.

In-migrant

In-migrant youths in St. Louis come mostly from the small towns in the southeastern half of Missouri and the west-central part of Illinois. Among the problems they frequently encounter are: Difficulty in adjusting to the big-city environment, competing with city-oriented and trained applicants for the relatively few entry jobs, overcoming the hesitancy of some employers to hire youthful newcomers to the area, and lack of knowledge of job possibilities in the area.

Perhaps one of the most significant developments in assisting this group of youth to overcome these problems was an intrastate plan designed to coordinate the activities of the St. Louis Youth Division and the local employment service office in the in-migrant youth's home area. The youth in contact with the local office in his home area was given an introduction card to the St. Louis office. This gave him a point of contact in the St. Louis area and provided him with some means of organizing his jobseeking efforts. In addition, a duplicate application card was forwarded to the St. Louis office from the local office. This included any vocational plan that he may have developed as a result of counseling received through the cooperative school program carried out by the local office in his area. The out-of-State local offices are informed of the services rendered to applicants who come from their areas and are provided with labor market information from the St. Louis area to assist them in working with youth applicants who indicate their intention to migrate to St. Louis.

Inschool Youth

Several experimental programs are underway. In one of these, work was begun with a sample group of ninth graders who were considered by officials of the school as potential labor market entrants upon completion of high school. During the school year 1962–63, these youths were given the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY and were interviewed by employment service counselors. Each student's vocational plans were discussed, as well as his grades, courses, school activities, hobbies, etc.

This year, small group meetings will be held with these students where discussion will center on current labor market information and the relationship of education and training to various occupations. Since it is planned that work with this group will continue through graduation, during the coming years, they will be given the opportunity to visit industries to observe actual occupations and discuss occupations with those who perform them as well as with the employers. Counseling sessions will be carried out at the same time. During the senior year, it is anticipated that each student's job choice will be somewhat crystallized and he will be given placement assistance.

The regular cooperative school program for those seeking jobs is carried out with some schools and offered with modifications in others.

Juvenile Offenders

Initially, arrangements were made with the local Juvenile Court officers to refer all juveniles who come to the attention of the courts to the Youth Division. These youth were interviewed by a project interviewer to determine their occupational potential and the likelihood of good job adjustment. Where appropriate, the application cards were then sent to the units for placement.

After a period of time, the application cards were reviewed with the placement technician or counselor to study the services that had been rendered to the applicant. It was observed that these youth had few job opportunities due to lack of employer acceptance. Consequently, the placement technician, in an effort to refer the best youth to an employer, passed over the juvenile offender and very little was accomplished in gaining acceptance by employers. Recognizing this as a problem, the youth specialist who visits employers began to take one of the youth with him on his visits. Both he and the youth talked to the employer and attempted what amounted to an on-the-spot selling job, stressing ability to do the job. This approach has been the most successful means of job placement for this group to date. As in our work with the physically handicapped, the ES has found that selective placement is necessary for the socially handicapped. From a practical standpoint, it is realized that this method can be used only on a very limited basis since it is very expensive.

Summer and Part Time

A summer outstation office was staffed with employment service employees during the summer of 1962; only 18 percent of those registered were placed. For the summer of 1963, an outstation program was developed in cooperation with various community groups. The 10 outstations established were manned by volunteers. Youth Division staff provided consultative service on problems arising in operating volunteer employment offices. They also assisted with placement problems. The volume of placement activity was most rewarding, as it resulted in summer employment and consequent work experience for many young applicants.

We should like to try another summer project combining the two methods in which someone with a knowledge of employment service operations would be located in the large installation to work with a volunteer staff.

Labor Market Information and Occupations

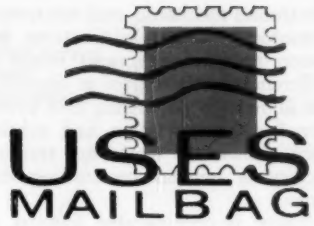
To meet the young people's need for pertinent labor market information, a small, monthly publication called the *World of Work* was developed. Written in lay language, it contains labor market information that relates to the young jobseeker. It is distributed through schools, YMCA and YWCA, youth centers, and other spots where youth congregate. It was an immediate success and has been in much demand. Currently 15,000 copies are distributed monthly. Occupational guides

have also been developed for many jobs in the St. Louis area.

Conclusions

We want to state that this article contains only a few of the activities engaged in by the Youth Demonstration Project personnel. Others just as important have been omitted because of space. However, we do want to share with the reader some of the observations we have made during this past year.

- Youth respond to personal attention.
- Employers tend to resist the employment of youth between 16 and 18 years of age.
- There is a need for aptitude testing and vocational counseling to begin at the ninth grade.
- Young men must register for the draft at age 18; however, they are not given their physical and mental examinations until several years later, at which time many are rejected. During the interim, their employment opportunities are jeopardized because of the possibility of induction into the armed services. (Being implemented as of July 1, 1964.)
- There exists a definite need to revise the Child Labor Laws.
- There is a need for an expansion of the high school curriculum to include more courses designed for vocational training. (New Vocational Education Act signed December 18, 1963.)
- Provisions need to be made for more Manpower Development and Training Programs designed to serve youth. (Amended MDT Act signed December 19, 1963.)
- The money and staff needed to provide employment services for settlement houses is not practical.
- A need for closer communication needs to exist on a high level between the Employment Service and the business world, for the purpose of working together on the employment problems of youth.
- The St. Louis Youth Demonstration Project should continue through September 1964, in order that we might experience one more summer's workload.



The editor welcomes letters from readers for this department. Comments on published articles, requests for additional information, inquiries about the program or operations of the Employment Service and evaluation of its accomplishments, or suggestions for future articles might be appropriate subjects. We hope that there will be a steady stream of letters to the editor.

Letters to be used should be brief and must carry the name and address of the writer. Permission will be obtained from correspondents before publication. Letters used in this issue were selected from USES correspondence, with the permission of the writers, since no letters to the editors have been received as yet.

Area Classification

Sir: A procurement agency field representative and a potential bidder have referred to us this question of interpretation under the area classification system. A lumber supplier has a mill in a nonsurplus area county which is adjacent to a county of the substantial and persistent surplus category. A substantial proportion of his mill employees lives in the surplus county, and he has offices and a company-owned railroad, plus other facilities, in the surplus county which might be affected by production of lumber in the mill in the first county. In such a case, should the Labor Department give the interpretation of his eligibility for surplus area preference, and, if so, what is the interpretation?

Homer J. Freeman
Regional Director, USES
Kansas City, Mo.

The lumber supplier could not be considered as being in an area of substantial unemployment under this program. It is suggested, however, that you advise the procurement agency field representative to contact his national office for interpretation and guidance on this point. Regulations of individual procurement agencies differ slightly in measures used to determine whether a substantial proportion of production on contracts involved will be performed in labor surplus areas.

* * *

Sir: As a small business interested in bidding on certain government contracts, we will need continuously up-to-date information regarding classification of the Northport, New York, area as a "Labor Surplus Area."

James I. Hyde
General Manager, Charter Laboratories
Northport, Long Island, N.Y.

***Your name has been added to the mailing list for the monthly bulletin,* Area Labor Market Trends.**

Although firms in areas of moderate unemployment (Group C), such as New York City, which includes Northport, are not eligible on the basis of their location for preference in bidding on Federal contracts, they may nevertheless qualify for such preference by agreeing to buy a substantial proportion of the goods or services involved in fulfilling the contract from firms in areas of substantial unemployment. The Federal procurement offices with which you are dealing, or expect to deal, can provide further information on this point.

GATB

Sir: We are in need of information regarding the General Aptitude Test Battery that is available to high school seniors via their State office.

Is it possible for us to obtain the tests for our seniors even though we do not belong to a State? We have tried to obtain the tests from one State but were refused.

There are 30 seniors in our graduating class, but that number is subject to fluctuation since we have students arriving and leaving continually. These seniors will eventually rotate back to the States but we would like to help them as much as possible while they are here.

ETHEL M. MALLACE
Guidance Counselor, Dependent's School, 4082d Strategic Wing, (SAC), U.S. Air Force, New York, N.Y.

An agreement exists between the USES and the U.S. Air Force that the U.S. Air Force may use the GATB. Therefore, your Dependent's School may purchase the GATB materials. All orders for materials should be placed through your base purchasing office directly to the distributor.

TRAINING

MDTA-ARA Training Programs

Occupational training programs under the Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) and the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), though differing in size and scope, are designed to increase the employability of unemployed and underemployed workers by providing them with marketable skills.

The MDTA is the newer and the larger of the two. Unlike the ARA, which limits training to residents of redevelopment areas (so designated on the basis of chronically high rates of unemployment or low income), the MDTA provides that training may be given wherever it is needed, although more stringent qualifications are imposed on the payment of training allowances. By the beginning of 1964, training had been approved for 112,000 trainees in MDTA projects and for some 27,450 trainees in ARA programs. At present, there are about 10 times as many enrollments per month under the MDTA as under the ARA program.

Training programs under the provisions of the two acts show some marked similarities, and a few notable differences. For the most part, the short-term training available under the provisions of the ARA (usually a maximum of 16 weeks) is for entry level jobs, or for updating existing skills. The longer period of training possible under the provisions of the MDTA (generally limited to a maximum of 52 weeks) permits training at higher skill levels. Among the occupations for which substantial numbers of both ARA and MDTA trainees are being prepared are clerk-typist, stenographer, automobile mechanic, nurse aide, sewing machine operator, welder, electronics mechanic, and electronics assembler. Other distinctions between the two programs relate to differences with respect to eligibility for allowance payments, and provision for transportation and subsistence allowances when the training facility is beyond commuting distance.

There is considerable likeness in the composition of the two groups of trainees with respect to such characteristics as age, educational attainment, and previous length of unemployment. In both programs, about three-fifths of the enrollees are between 19 and 34 years of age, about two-fifths of the trainees have not completed high school, and about half have had a long period of unemployment—15 weeks or more—prior to their enrollment in the training course. About 7 of ever 10 graduates of both ARA and MDTA training courses have obtained employment, predominantly in training-related occupations, soon after completion of their training.

New Skills for Americans

LESTER RINDLER

MDTA training has brought new help for the unemployed and new dimensions to Employment Service responsibilities.

Recent amendments to the act allow greater flexibility in training for youth and for the undereducated.

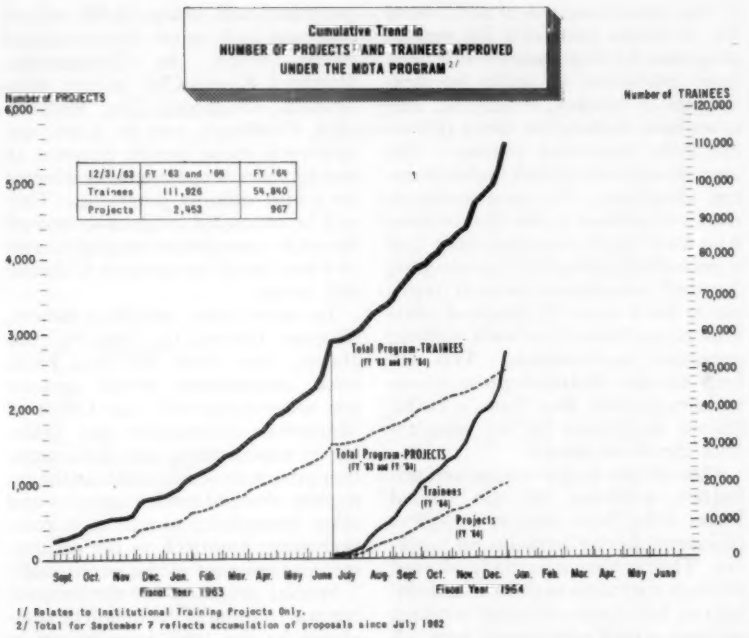
During the first 17 months of operations under the Manpower Development and Training Act, more than 116,600 unemployed persons have been authorized for training in over 2,500 institutional training programs; 72,000 have actually been enrolled in classes; 31,000 have completed training, of whom about 70 percent were soon at work, nearly all in training-related jobs. It now appears likely that, as momentum picks up, the goal of training 400,000 by the end of 1965 will be realized.

This is a very substantial achievement, but its importance cannot be measured in terms of statistics alone. The real significance is that the concept of training the unemployed as a means of aiding in their occupational readjustment has penetrated into the employment service system, becoming part of the warp and woof of employment service operations. In carrying out its responsibilities under this Act, along with those under the Area Redevelopment, Public Works Acceleration, and Trade Expansion Acts, the local office is projecting itself into a more active role than ever before as the manpower service center in the community.

Viewed against the backdrop of the broad economic setting, the MDTA program, though limited in scope, takes on a special significance. Despite recordmaking gains in national output and employment, the seasonally adjusted rate of unemployment has remained above 5 percent in virtually every month since the fall of 1957. The number of unemployed averaged over 4 million a month in 1963, but about 15 million workers experienced some period of joblessness during the year. The MDTA is one of the major tools available to reduce the impact of unemployment by eliminating some of the maladjustment between demand and supply in the labor market.

The continuing high level of unemployment is a major concern of public policy, but just beyond the horizon the problem threatens to assume even greater proportions. Technological innovation is daily creating

Lester Rindler is currently Chief of the Branch of Area Labor Market Reports, USES.


Cumulative Trend in
NUMBER OF PROJECTS 1/ AND TRAINEES APPROVED
UNDER THE MDTA PROGRAM 2/
Number of PROJECTS
Number of TRAINEES
12/31/63 | FY '63 and '64 | FY '64
Trainees | 111,926 | 56,840
Projects | 2,453 | 967
Total Program-TRAINEES
(FY '63 and FY '64)
Total Program-PROJECTS
(FY '63 and FY '64)
Trainees
(FY '64)
Projects
(FY '64)
Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June
Fiscal Year 1963
Fiscal Year 1964

1/ Relates to Institutional Training Projects Only.
2/ Total for September 7 reflects accumulation of proposals since July 1962

new problems of occupational adjustment as the growth of employment opportunities is not keeping pace with a rapidly expanding labor force.

A comprehensive economic policy to meet the challenge of attaining and maintaining full employment under these circumstances has many aspects. Measures to stimulate investment and maintain consumer demand are part of the overall design to spur economic growth and create employment opportunities. A key element in this policy is a strengthened public employment service. Added resources will be required for gathering and disseminating job vacancy information, expanding counseling and vocational guidance services, creating an early warning system to anticipate impending layoffs, aiding the mobility of workers, and participating in community employment planning. Training and retraining the unemployed under MDTA, ARA, and other programs is an important building block in the structure of our manpower policy.

The rising emphasis now being given to vocational and technical education nationally is seen in the surge of legislation recently enacted in Congress. The Vocational Education Act of 1963, providing grants to States to broaden vocational education programs and to tie them in closer to current manpower needs and job opportunities, will have important implications for employment service activities in the State and local areas. This Act, with others passed in 1963, gives further recognition to the Federal Government's responsibility for assisting States in preparing workers for the changing occupational patterns of the times.

Administration of the Program

Unlike most Federal programs, which are administered directly by a single agency through its field organization, the MDTA involves cooperation of Federal, State, and local employment service, vocational education, and apprenticeship agencies in a coordinated attack on unemployment through training. In addition, voluntary agencies, community groups, vocational rehabilitation agencies, unions, employers, and the general public are involved in an advisory and supporting role. The combination of abilities and services of many different agencies and outside groups, while making program administration complex, affords advantages in terms of cross-fertilization of ideas and specialized contributions to meet the needs of the unemployed.

State employment service and vocational education agencies have formed a working partnership for planning, developing, and conducting institutional training programs. Important spadework has been accomplished in (1) surveying labor market areas to determine occupations which are suitable for training; (2) drawing up training plans and curricula; (3) arranging for facilities and instructors; (4) studying applicant files to determine the characteristics of the unemployed and their training needs; and (5) training and orienting employment service and vocational education staff to understand the MDTA and how it can add to the arsenal of weapons in dealing with problems of the unemployed and unskilled. The foundation has been laid and a structure of relationships and institutions is taking shape on which future programs of even broader scope can be built.

To get the program underway as rapidly as possible, State employment service agencies at first selected occupations for which shortages were readily apparent and for which training facilities were readily available. These were largely semiskilled and service-type occupations. Soon, however, attention shifted to more specialized and technical occupations, such as, microminiaturization assembler, operating room technician, systems testing laboratory technician, bilingual secretary, telephone and telegraph frameman, computer programmer, geriatrics nurse aide, and draftsman, to mention only a few of the more than 400 occupations for which training is now being given.

One of the most important problems encountered was the limitation imposed by available vocational education facilities, many of which are now operated night and day as MDTA programs are superimposed on the regular training being given in these institutions. Area vocational schools, junior and senior colleges, and private educational institutions are now being utilized in many areas.

As training programs for the unemployed become established in the States as a permanent part of the vocational education and employment service institutions, larger metropolitan areas may find it advantageous to set up and operate manpower training centers. These would have continuing programs geared to meet changing manpower requirements. Such centers, linked closely with employment service offices, may be staffed with counseling and guidance personnel, as well as instructors, to evaluate each prospective trainee, to assure an appropriate training assignment, and to assist him in making up deficiencies in his background. It is becoming increasingly evident that numbers of trainees must be given individualized counseling to help them through the training and readjustment period.

Hard-Core Unemployment

With limited funds available, it is not possible to retrain every unemployed person. Judgments must be made in the selection and referral of applicants, taking into account the characteristics of potential trainees on the one hand and employer requirements on the other. To date the program has benefited the long-term jobless, minority groups, and handicapped workers significantly. The record shows, however, that older workers, the educationally deprived, and youth between 16 and 19 have not been participating in proportion to their numbers among the unemployed.

Recognition is now being given to the urgent need for finding ways and means of enabling the educationally deprived to qualify for MDTA occupational training in greater numbers. In Hartford, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and other cities, programs combining intensive counseling and guidance, the "three R's," and multiple-choice occupational courses are now underway. Only the most seriously undereducated adults are eligible for selection, including older workers and handicapped.

Amendments to the MDTA, passed in December 1963, will greatly expand possibilities for programs of this type. They authorize up to 20 weeks of training allowances, in addition to the 52 weeks permitted for regular programs, for those persons who need basic education to make up deficiencies in reading, arithmetic, and other basic skills before they can benefit from vocational courses. The amendments also permit higher training allowances. In some instances, the level has been so low that trainees who have family responsibilities find it exceedingly difficult to participate. Another amendment permits trainees to have up to 20 hours of part-time employment in a week without reduction in allowances. This will help to ease financial pressures on trainees so that they have a better chance to remain in the program once they have started.

One of the major manpower utilization problems, in the United States arises from chronic underemployment among agricultural workers. The problem is partially relieved through migration to cities. Retraining can help those who seek nonfarm or more skilled agricultural jobs. A recently established multi-occupational project for over 1,000 youths and adults from scattered farms and villages in southeastern Ohio may be the prototype for many programs in rural areas. A similar plan for retraining 3,500 unemployed in 30 economically depressed Appalachian counties in eastern Kentucky is just getting underway. In South Carolina, a program to train 5,000 persons in a number of occupations is designed to reach rural underemployed farmworkers and sharecroppers.

Social Dynamite

Over the decade of the 1960's the Nation faces a serious challenge to absorb some 20 million noncollege boys and girls entering a labor market that places a premium on technical skills and know-how. The number of out-of-school jobless youth at the present time is estimated between 600,000 and 700,000.

Under the MDTA, more than 135 employment service-vocational education youth programs have been authorized, mostly in large cities where problems of youth unemployment are aggravated by poor environment and lack of motivation. These programs will train 12,000 school dropouts and other disadvantaged young people. In Chattanooga, Hartford, Kansas City, Miami, Minneapolis, Oklahoma City, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and St. Louis, unemployed young people between 16 and 21 years of age are being selected for youth training programs. They will be counseled, evaluated, and referred to appropriate training courses in a number of occupations at various skill levels.

In other cities, including Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, New Haven, New York, and San Francisco, employment service agencies are cooperating with the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training in experimental and demonstration programs which combine the resources of social service agencies and other community groups in a comprehensive approach to the employment adjustment of the individual.

Special programs for the counseling and training of youth will be stimulated by the 1963 amendments to the MDTA, which provide that as many as 25 percent of all trainees receiving training allowances may be under 22 years of age. Previously, only 5 percent of training allowance expenditures were authorized for youth. The age at which young people are eligible for youth allowance payments has been lowered from 19 to 17 years to encourage greater participation of those in the younger age categories.

New Approaches

When the MDTA program was launched, primary emphasis was placed on identifying occupational shortages and selecting applicants possessing the aptitude to assure satisfactory placement. The effect of multioccupational programs for the hard-core unemployed, plus the longer duration of training now available under the MDTA amendments, is to provide needed program balance. The emphasis will be placed to a greater extent on the training needs of individuals insofar as these are consistent with employment opportunities in the labor market.

Since there is not always a sufficient number of potential trainees for

Characteristics of MDTA Trainees, by Status in Program, U.S. Totals
September 1962–September 30, 1963

Characteristics	Total enrolled [1]	Completed [2]	Employed [2]	Employed as percent of completions [2]
Total	44,372	16,818	11,624	69.1
Family head	25,672	9,121	6,429	70.5
Age (years):				
Under 19	3,268	1,282	949	74.0
19–21	8,906	3,306	2,320	70.2
22–34	18,711	6,728	4,689	69.7
35–44	8,677	3,457	2,334	67.5
45 and over	4,712	2,043	1,330	65.1
Education (grades):				
Under 8	1,216	432	293	67.8
8	3,091	1,303	923	70.8
9–11	12,995	5,225	3,592	68.7
12	22,783	8,480	5,888	69.4
Over 12	4,210	1,378	928	67.3
Unemployment (weeks):				
Under 5	11,302	4,028	3,032	75.3
5–14	10,394	3,898	2,840	72.9
15–26	6,440	2,375	1,601	67.4
27–52	5,203	2,080	1,343	64.6
Over 52	7,924	3,393	1,998	58.9
Other selected trainee characteristics:				
Underemployed	2,557	968	760	78.5
Family farmworkers	181	75	49	65.3
Veterans	8,676	2,591	1,857	71.7
Handicapped	2,935	726	483	66.5
Unemployment insurance claimants	13,604	3,822	2,791	73.0

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Based on employment reports received through November 15, 1963.

Source: State Employment Security Agencies.

specific courses locally, more and more future programs will be organized on an area, State, and regional basis.

A new procedure now being issued to States for referring unemployed persons to regular public or private courses, not arranged specifically for MDTA, will provide much needed flexibility in an individualized approach to manpower retraining.

1963 Amendments to MDTA

Public Law 88–214, approved by the President on December 19, 1963, makes a number of changes in the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. The following are the most significant:

(1) *Matching Requirements.* One-hundred percent Federal financing of allowance payments and training costs for unemployed trainees is extended another year, to June 30, 1965. In fiscal year 1966, States will be required to bear one-third of such training costs and payments, and thereafter, one-half.

(2) *Literacy Training.* Provision is made for referral of persons to training for the attainment of basic educational skills to enable them to pursue courses of occupational training. If otherwise eligible, such persons may receive up to 20 weeks of training allowances in addition to the 52 weeks provided for occupational training.

(3) *Training Allowances.* In certain instances, training allowances may be raised up to $10 above the average weekly unemployment compensation payment in a State. Persons receiving allowances may be employed part-time up to 20 hours per week without reduction in their allowance payments.

(4) *Eligibility for Allowances.* Members of households where the household head is unemployed are now eligible for allowances. Previously, only household heads were eligible. Only one person in any one household may receive training allowances at any one time, however. The employment experience requirement for training allowance eligibility is reduced from 3 to 2 years.

(5) *Youth Allowances.* Training allowances not to exceed $20 per week may now be paid to youth age 17 to 22 who are enrolled in special youth training programs. Previously, only youths 19 to 22 were eligible. Up to 25 percent of all persons receiving training allowances may be youths under 22. School dropouts must wait at least 1 year before being eligible for training allowances.

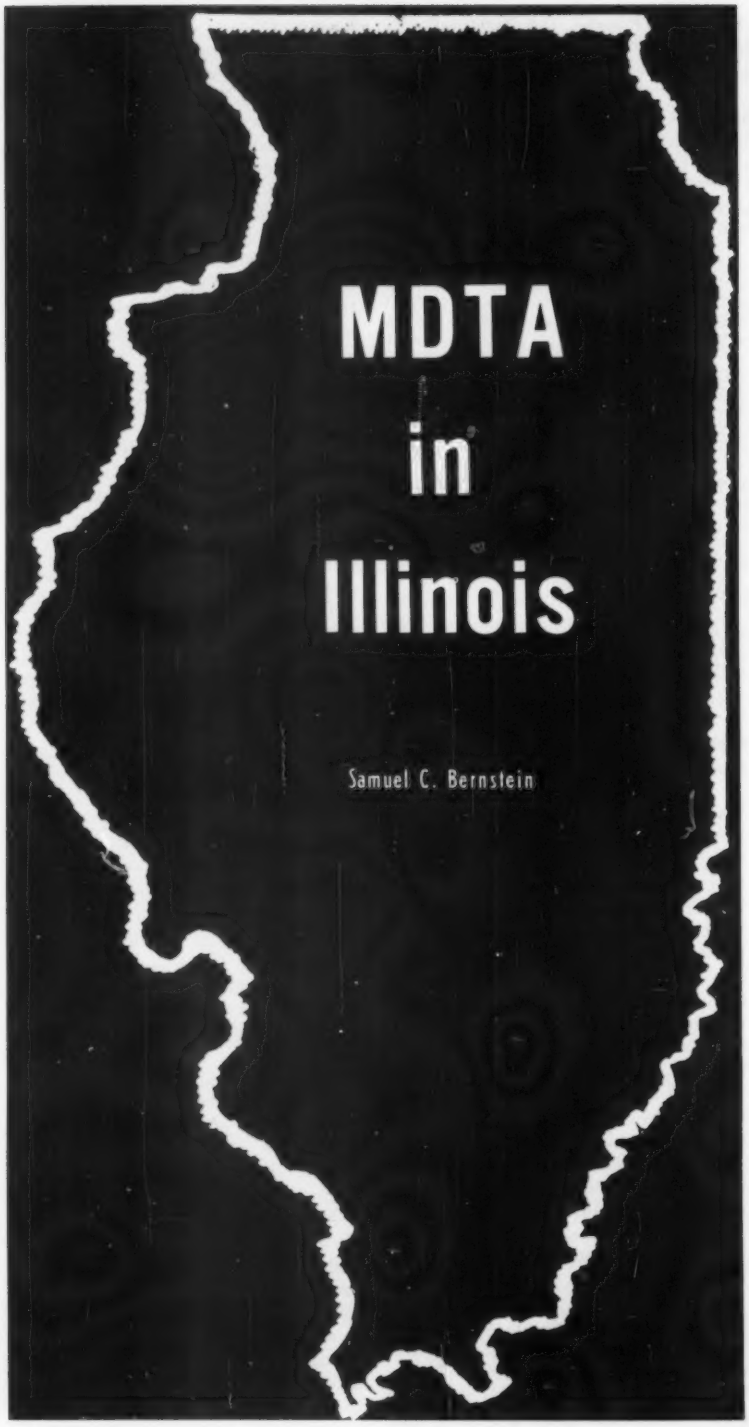
(6) *Labor Mobility Demonstration Projects.* The Secretary of Labor is directed to develop and carry out a limited number of pilot projects to provide loans and/or grants to assist in the relocation of unemployed persons who have *bona fide* job offers in another part of the country.

(7) *Advisory Committees.* The Secretary of Labor is empowered, where appropriate, to require the organization of community, State, or regional labor-management-public advisory committees.

Area Skill Surveys

Area Skill Surveys, now available for almost 170 areas in 46 States, provide estimates of current and future employment requirements and local labor supply available for selected occupations. Such information is valuable for labor surplus areas to indicate specific surplus occupations as a basis for planning future industrial development in the area and for skill retraining if needed. Skill surveys also provide important information on the types and extent of local occupational shortages for use in counseling and in improving vocational education and training programs.

Abbreviated skill surveys (referred to as training needs surveys) are widely used to substantiate training proposals submitted under MDTA or ARA by identifying the occupations in short supply and by estimating the number of workers who could be employed in these occupations were they to receive the appropriate training.



Getting the MDTA program off the ground in Illinois involved many problems of organization, coordination, recruitment, and training facilities. The State administrator tells how problems were met and what problems remain.

James Harris has been given a second chance in life. Forty years old, he was in the depths of despair. The sole breadwinner for his wife and 12 children, Harris had been able to find only casual, short-time work during the past 15 years. Between jobs as a theater usher, shipping clerk, or night watchman, he spent long periods dependent on relief or unemployment compensation. For the past 8 months he had been unable to find any work at all, and while a relief check of $370 a month may seem rather large, it amounted to just 88 cents per day for food, shelter, clothing, and incidentals for each of the 14 members of his family.

Then a class for automobile parts salesmen under the Manpower Development and Training Act opened in Chicago in April 1963. Harris applied for admission and was referred for training by the Illinois State Employment Service. It is a 48-week course. When Harris graduates, late in March, the indications are that he will be able to find a permanent position that will pay at least $500 a month.

Looking back on his pre-MDTA days, Harris said, "When I'd get up in the morning, I'd feel low. I'd mark down those want ads, but the chances were I'd come back jobless like I went out. I knew if I couldn't get hold of a job pretty soon, I'd be locked up in jail. I just had to get some money for my family."

A desperate situation! Yes, but Harris is only one of many thousands of grim, faceless men and women in Chicago and other cities and towns in Illinois, 160,000 of them, caught in the whirpool of unemployment bebecause of limited education and skills, and because of automation and

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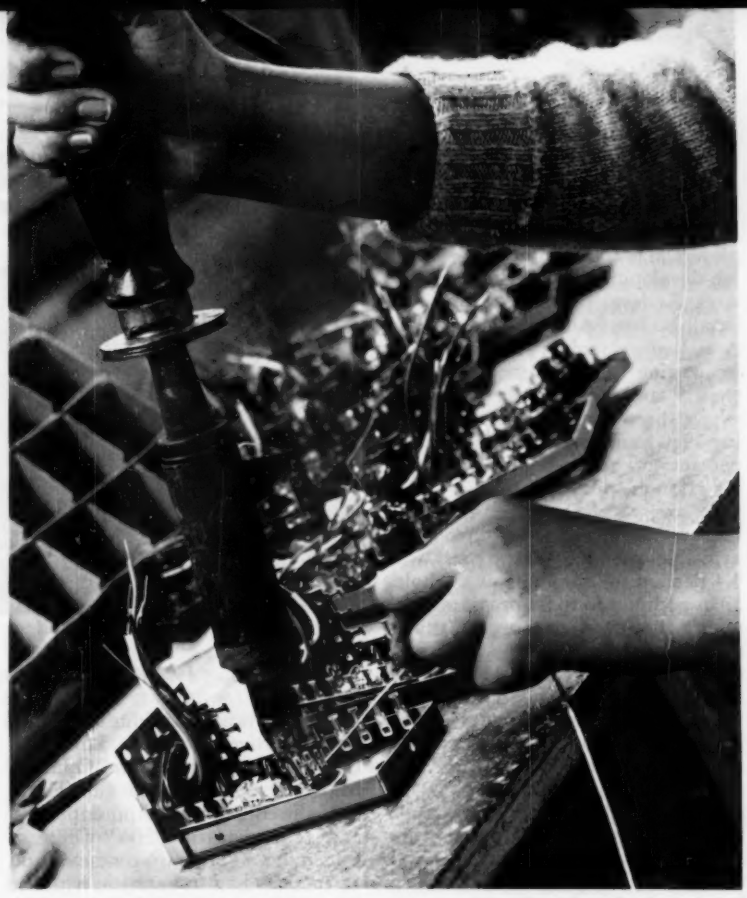
Samuel C. Bernstein is Employment Security Administrator for the State of Illinois.

the resultant shrinking of job openings for the unskilled. The Manpower Development and Training Act has been a godsend to many of these people.

However, there had been many efforts by many individuals and agencies to do something about unemployment in Illinois, and particularly for its hard-core unemployed, long before MDTA was enacted. One of the first things Governor Otto Kerner did upon assuming office in 1960 was to appoint a Committee on Unemployment, consisting of outstanding representatives of labor, management, education, and government. This Committee began its study by initiating a statewide jobseekers survey through the Illinois State Employment Service and the Illinois Division of Unemployment Compensation. This survey, believed to be the first of its kind, involved the interviewing of almost 150,000 persons to determine their characteristics—sex, age, color, education, occupation, last employment, etc. The survey helped pinpoint some of the problems of the unemployed, such as that 68 percent had never completed high school, and 17 percent had not even completed grade school.

Stepped-up efforts to minimize the number of school dropouts followed, with countless television and radio announcements, newspaper stories, talks to PTA and other groups, and hundreds of showings of the Department of Labor film "When I'm Old E n o u g h, Goodbye!" While the school dropout rate in Chicago is still higher than we should like it to be, it has declined in recent years.

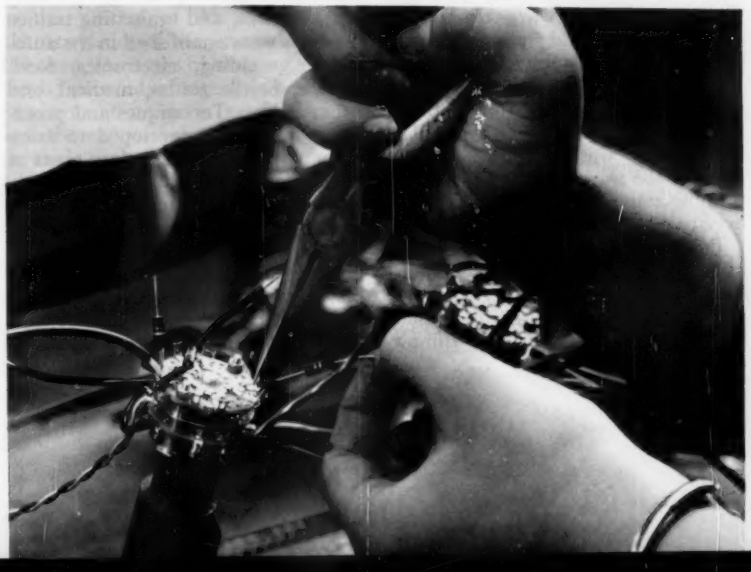
Efforts were also greatly increased to help dropouts, through additional training, to prepare themselves for available jobs. A number of projects were set up with this objective, even before the passage of the ARA and MDTA acts. One of the most successful of these was a 10-week program for sewing machine operators established in cooperation with the Chicago Board of Education and several of the area's largest employers in the needle trades industry in February 1962. A lack of funds, however, held the programs down to pilot proportions.



Soldering connections.

The hands in these pictures are those of MDTA-trained workers performing delicate and intricate tasks in the manufacture of electronics equipment.

Assembling a special unit.



Action was also taken to stimulate the creation of new jobs in Illinois. Early in his administration, Governor Kerner established a Board of Economic Development to bring new industry into the State. This Board has been instrumental in helping employers and communities in securing job-developing loans through the Area Redevelopment Act and the Small Business Administration. The Area Redevelopment Act was helpful in cutting unemployment in distressed areas in Southern Illinois where the unemployment rates during 1960 sometimes ran as high as 25 percent. The unemployment rate for Illinois dropped sharply since then, and, as of December 1963, the last month for which figures were available when we went to press, was 4.4 percent for the State as a whole.

In addition to these programs and efforts, however, one of the things most needed in Illinois was a federally financed program to train the unemployed for the thousands of jobs which were going begging for lack of qualified jobseekers. Hospitals, offices, stores, and a large variety of factories clamored in vain for workers with easily learned skills. A handful of programs was set up under the Area Redevelopment Act, but the trainees in these programs were very few and the length and adequacy of the training offered generally far less than what was really needed, since ARA training was limited to areas of substantial and persistent unemployment and courses were for a maximum of 16 weeks.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 provided an excellent, though partial, answer to the needs of the unemployed. To get the program underway, tremendous organizational and administrative problems had to be solved. A special statewide MDTA unit had to be set up and staffed in the Illinois State Employment Service. An MDTA Coordinator was appointed to administer the work of this unit and all training activities of the Employment Service related to that act.

Procedures had to be written and hundreds of Employment Service personnel had to be trained. Cooperative agreements and procedures had to be developed with the Illinois Board of Vocational Education, with representatives from the Bureau of Employment Security, the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, and HEW's Office of Education. Special contacts and agreements had to be made with the Illinois Department of Public Aid, the Chicago Board of Education, and scores of other boards of education in the State.

Photo courtesy The Gary Post-Tribune.

An MDTA training class in drafting.

A great many labor unions and employer groups had to be contacted. Manpower Development and Training Advisory Committees had to be set up for Chicago and for downstate Illinois. Industry-wide committees to assist in developing curricula, setting up standards, and evaluating trainee progress were established in the automotive, welding, electronics, food, service, needle trades, medical, and other fields. Techniques and procedures had to be developed to assess training needs in the various areas of the States as quickly and accurately as possible. Instructors in the various training classes had to be made aware of their responsibility for certification of trainees and notifying employment service representatives immediately of dropouts.

MDTA units had to be set up in every employment service office to recruit, select, counsel, and refer applicants to classes. A system of regular auditing of classes by employment service, vocational education, and/or industry groups was installed to identify and counsel possible dropouts.

Procedures had to be developed for the prompt payment of training allowances. A great deal of publicity had to be given the program through all media to make certain that unemployed workers in need of training were made aware of its existence.

There was a natural anxiety on the part of everyone associated with the program in Illinois to get as many people into MDTA training classes as quickly as possible. But, because so many organizational problems had to be solved at the very outset, progress was disappointingly slow at first. The following is one example of what had to be done to get the program moving. The use of private schools, where facilities already existed, broke a serious bottleneck that persisted until public school facilities could be established.

As of February 1, 1964, Illinois had 148 MDTA programs approved involving a total of 10,088 trainees. Another 70 programs, for 4,000

trainees, were pending and approval was expected shortly, so that, within a brief period, Illinois will probably have 218 programs approved for over 14,000 trainees.

Among the occupations for which training is given are: Cook, motor analyst, millman, mechanical draftsman, engine lathe operator, clerk-typist, clerk-stenographer, licensed practical nurse, psychiatric aide, automatic screw machine operator, wirer-solderer, automobile mechanic, and electronic technician.

Illinois has a number of unusual programs in operation. One is a year-long preapprenticeship tool and die maker program which began in April 1963. Several months earlier, a committee representing the unions and employers in the tool and die industry called on the Illinois State Employment Service and requested that such a program be established in Chicago. They were much concerned because so few apprentices were entering the field—five journeymen retired, died, or withdrew from the labor force for every new apprentice. In addition, the great bulk of the employers in the field are small firms which can ill afford the necessary training costs, particularly during the first year. A program was established for 105 young men who will receive at least 1 full year of credit toward journeyman status when they complete training. Indications are that all will be hired upon graduation. Although this is a field in which no nonwhites were formerly employed in Chicago, 28 of the 105 trainees are Negro.

Another unusual program is JOBS (Job Opportunities through Better Skills) which began on September 30, 1963, in Chicago. The YMCA in Chicago for some time had had a "street worker program" through which YMCA social workers endeavored to interest disadvantaged youths in securing jobs or additional schooling to qualify for jobs. A pilot program was established for this purpose through the cooperation of the Young Men's Christian Association of Metropolitan Chicago, the Boys Clubs, the Chicago Youth Centers, and the Illinois State Employment Service. Later, special approval was obtained to offer training to 1,000 youths under MDTA.

Of these, 300 are being given institutional training in three general fields: Clerk-typing, duplicating machine and mail handling occupations, and automotive service station attendant. The remaining 700 youths are receiving on-the-job training at various private firms which have indicated an interest in the program. Since a high percentage of these youth are woefully lacking in education, a part of the training in this program is devoted to bringing the basic education of these youngsters up to at least the sixth grade level.

A similar program for adults, TWO (The W o o d l a w n Organization), sponsored by various neighborhood organizations and the University of Chicago, is under consideration as a demonstration project for 100 to 200 trainees. This program will train people who are unable to pass aptitude tests but whose work experience or general background indicates ability to succeed in the occupation for which training is offered.

In addition to the on-the-job training for 700 youths under the JOBS program, there are seven other on-the-job projects in Illinois, including one for 900 bus drivers.

One of the persistent pockets of unemployment in southern Illinois is located in the West Frankfort-Harrisburg-Herrin labor market where closed or highly mechanized coal mines have idled thousands of miners. The Illinois State Employment Service is now collaborating with the Board of Economic Development, Southern Illinois University, and the Department of Public Aid to establish retraining programs for many of these unemployed. Committees are in the process of determining the characteristics of the unemployed in this area, the types of training which can be given advantageously here, the employment needs in nearby areas, and the supportive services, such as psychological testing and financial aid, available in the area. A pilot program for 20 maintenance men, to be employed in fairly close-by St. Louis, has already been set up.

Because the level of education of many of the hard-core unemployed is so low, the Employment Service has had to interview almost 54,000 applicants in order to refer 5,300 trainees to classes. To assist the undereducated unemployed, a number of programs requiring little educational background were established. JOBS was one; others were set up for food servers, waitresses, shirt pressers, sewing machine operators, and housekeepers. It is planned to establish a program for training Puerto Ricans and Cuban refugees as radio and TV solderers and assemblers; all instructions will be given in Spanish, but enough English will be spoken to enable trainees to secure and hold jobs in electronics firms.

Other problems also persist. Local boards of education are frequently unable to handle additional vocational training. It was only by awarding training contracts to private as well as to public schools, and by keeping after all of these institutions very persistently, that Illinois got its program off the ground.

The current immobility of labor is another serious problem. Many unemployed in Illinois live in areas where there is little likelihood that they will ever be able to find work again. Yet, for various reasons, they will not relocate. In many cases this is because these individuals are trapped. In their present locations where they are known, they may be on relief, or they get along somehow. But they have no money with which to go elsewhere, even though prospects for employment in another area may be good. Some of the amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act recently enacted by the Congress are expected to go a long way toward stimulating more training opportunities for the undereducated, as well as greater mobility and better utilization of our labor force.

MDTA and ARA Training Projects

Twenty-six States were engaged in MDTA and ARA training projects in agricultural occupations as of the end of December 1963. Since the start of the two programs, 162 projects involving 5,342 trainees had received BES approval. Seventy-seven projects have been completed and 1,591 workers have been trained in agricultural occupations.

ARA Training

First graduates under an ARA training program. A nurse aide group receiving certificates at the Huntington, W. Va., trade school, December 31, 1961.

In October 1961, the Secretary of Labor approved the first occupational training projects under the provisions of the Area Redevelopment Act. Training began the following month. By the end of 1963, the Secretary had approved 599 ARA training projects for about 27,450 trainees in 42 States, American Samoa, and Puerto Rico. By the beginning of 1964, nearly 21,000 unemployed and underemployed residents of redevelopment areas had enrolled in ARA training courses.

Characteristics

Insofar as possible, preference in the selection of trainees is given to those with the longest period of unemployment prior to their enrollment in the training course. Consequently, over half of all ARA enrollees had been unemployed for at least 15 weeks before they started training; over a fourth had been out of work for more than a year.

There has been less success in reaching two important segments of the hard-core unemployed—older workers and workers with low educational attainment. Only about 1 in every 10 ARA trainees was 45 years of age or older. About three-fourths were between the ages of 19 and 44—the group that has a reasonably long work-life expectation and heavy family responsibilities.

About 15 percent of the enrollees had completed no more than 8 years of school. Most of the trainees had some high school education, and about 6.5 percent of the enrollees had some college training.

Characteristics of ARA Trainees, By Status, U.S. Totals, New Enrollees January 1, 1963–December 31, 1963

Characteristics	Total enrolled	Total completed	Total employed	Percent employed
Total	9,923	6,873	5,229	76.1
Family head	3,445	2,290	1,832	80.0
Unemployed	2,671	1,864	1,484	79.6
Age (Years):				
Under 19	1,152	789	586	74.3
19–21	2,107	1,394	1,051	75.4
22–34	3,675	2,476	1,940	78.4
35–44	1,825	1,332	988	74.2
45 and over	1,164	882	664	75.3
Education (Grades):				
Under 8	502	321	243	75.7
8	1,070	729	554	76.0
9–11	3,033	2,088	1,595	76.4
12	4,791	3,366	2,553	75.8
Over 12	527	369	284	77.0
Unemployment (Weeks):				
Under 5	2,009	1,393	1,085	77.9
5–14	1,933	1,248	970	77.7
15–26	1,158	813	632	77.7
27–52	1,086	785	609	77.6
Over 52	2,979	2,161	1,530	70.8
Underemployed	758	473	403	85.2

Source: State Employment Security Agencies.

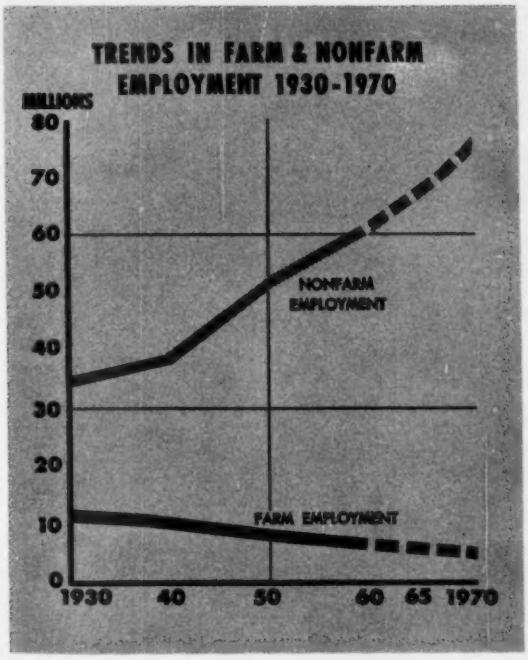
Post-Training Employment

Of the more than 15,000 workers who had completed their ARA training by the end of November, about 73 percent had obtained employment, mostly in training-related jobs. This understates the employed somewhat, since it does not include trainees who may have obtained jobs outside of Employment Service resources and have failed to report this information. In some instances, difficulties in obtaining materials or equipment, or delays in construction of facilities have resulted in delays in the employment of trainees.

While neither age nor previous educational attainment seemed to influence the trainees' chances of finding employment after completion of training, those who had been long-term unemployed have experienced somewhat greater difficulty in obtaining jobs despite their newly acquired skills.

An Era of Change

FRANK. A. POTTER



Increased mechanization and new technology change the pattern of agricultural employment. Short-term seasonal needs and higher skill requirements contrast with long-term declining employment in the farm labor market.

The agricultural labor market is in a continuing period of dramatic change. Florida researchers are perfecting mechanical tree shakers to harvest citrus fruit. New Jersey scientists have developed a self-propelled device equipped with an electric eye to select and cut asparagus. Michigan geneticists have bred a dwarf cucumber vine which is suitable for machine harvesting in a once-over operation; and agricultural engineers in the western States are presently engaged in refining experimental harvesters for lettuce, cantaloupes, grapes, figs, and tomatoes. The number of jobs in U.S. agriculture grows smaller by the season, and the trend is destined to continue. Nevertheless, there is the recurring problem of a labor market which must expand seasonally, and for a brief period only, by a half-million workers to meet harvest labor demands.

The Office of Farm Labor Service, the regional farm labor directors and representatives, and the farm placement staffs of the 50 States employment security agencies share the gloom and the glory which this constant change brings. The number of farms, farmers, and hired hands continues to drop; concurrently the size, value, and production of farms continue to rise. The need for skilled labor on the farm grows with increased mechanization and complex technology, while the young people capable of mastering such changes stream from rural to urban areas, attracted by the city's more abundant economic and social opportunities.

Off-farm wages have risen faster than on-farm wages, and many workers, young and old, have been attracted out of agriculture. Mechanization of tasks formerly performed by hand has driven workers out of agriculture. Improved farm practices calling for chemical weed and insect control, improved fertilizers, and a multitude of similar measures have contributed toward the same end. The hand tasks which are not eliminated are drastically shortened.

Each year since 1950 the average farmworker's productivity has increased enough to supply at least one additional consumer. Today the farmworker produces sufficient food and fiber to supply himself and almost 28 other people. Increased productivity has reduced agricultural employment steadily for over 50 years. Between 1950 and 1960 output per agricultural man-hour increased 65 percent, compared to 28 percent in nonagricultural employment. Since additional major technical breakthroughs will be required to further displace seasonal workers in such "hold-out" hand labor crops as fruit, berry and vegetable harvesting, it can be presumed that the displacement of farmworkers will proceed at a slightly lower rate in the next few years. But it is time alone which is the obstacle, for while mechanization is changing the face of agriculture, it is also changing its cell structure. Genetic research has

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produced the sausageshaped tomato with the bruise-resistant skin. Beans, lettuce, melons, as hand labor crops, are also falling by the wayside.

The farmer, as an employer, is aware of the solution to his labor problems. He must compete for labor by improving wages and other work conditions, thereby attracting the higher skilled worker. He must reevaluate his operation and, where feasible, realign his labor needs with the available labor supply by establishing new crops and timetables. He can thereby lessen his seasonal labor needs and at the same time make the work more attractive by extending its duration.

The worker's problem is the farmer's problem in reverse. Faced with dwindling job opportunities because of mechanization, the farmworker can raise his skill level through participation in federally sponsored training programs under the Area Redevelopment Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act. He can change his annual migratory pattern in order to achieve longer periods of employment. He can leave the agricultural labor market.

Many have done so. In 1910, one out of every three Americans lived on farms. By 1960, only one of every nine was on a farm. During the 1950's, while the population as a whole increased by 28 million, the farm population declined by 4 million.

Faced with this exodus, the course of action undertaken by the Farm Labor Service reflects the interest of both farmer and worker. On a national and State level, continued advocacy and endorsement of legislation to improve working conditions in agriculture are necessary. On the local level, improved recruitment and selection techniques are vital in order to provide the farmer with the needed labor, skilled and unskilled. Public information programs must continue to be directed at both farmer and worker, spelling out the benefit of upgrading performance in formal training programs. There must be continued evaluation of migratory patterns, and, where necessary, old patterns must be disrupted and new ones established, in order to meet changing labor needs, and at the same time afford continuity of employment to the migrant.

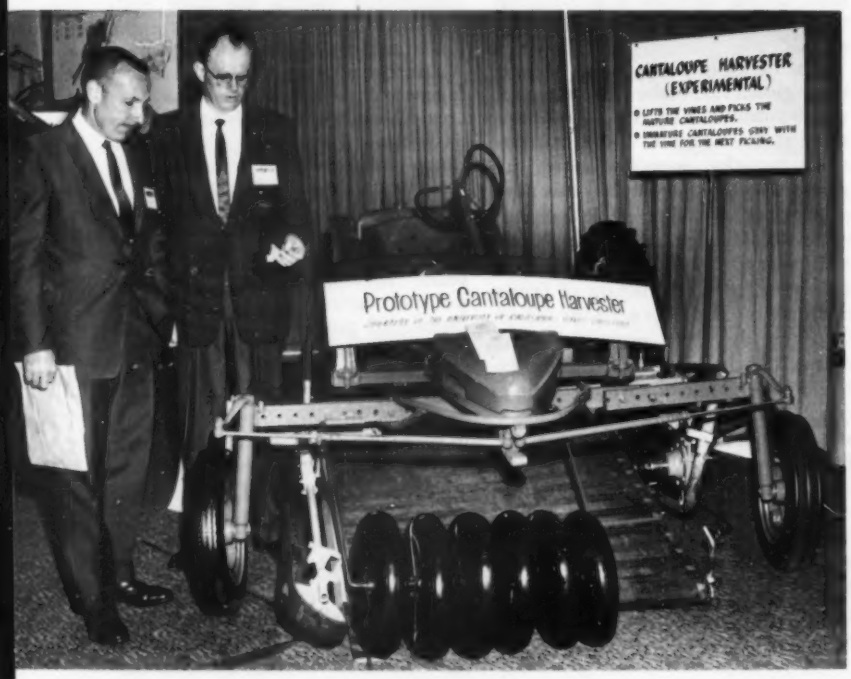
The eventual goal of all this activity is increased employment and a healthier, stable agricultural labor economy. This goal also demands constant emphasis on improvement of farm working and living conditions, an area which will receive increased attention in 1964.

Upgrading worker skills is equally essential. In an effort to increase the worker's skill level so that he may compete successfully in a more complex labor market, the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Area Redevelopment Act have come into being. To date, over 3,000 workers in 25 States have been approved for enrollment in over a hundred training projects for agricultural occupations under those Acts. Workers have received training as general farmhands, arborists, farm machinery operators, and farm mechanics, as well as fruit farmers, coffee farmers, forester aides, cattle ranchers, irrigators, and dairy farmhands.

Although initial progress in establishing such programs in many areas has been slow, the idea is taking hold. California, for example, has over 20 projects, embracing approximately 1,200 workers, in the planning stage. Fifteen courses with over 700 trainees have already been approved. Reports from other States indicate increased emphasis nationally on training in agriculture.

The importance of upgrading the skill level of those now in the agricultural labor market and of attracting new entrants into the field is emphasized by the fact that agricultural employment is characterized by both stability and instability. A recent Bureau of Labor Statistics investigation showed that farmers and farm operators averaged 18 years on the job (twice as long as the managers, officials, and proprietors who ranked second), compared to the 4.6-year average for all workers. However,

These machines emphasize that research constantly under way by colleges and manufacturers is getting close to providing one answer to the farm labor problem.



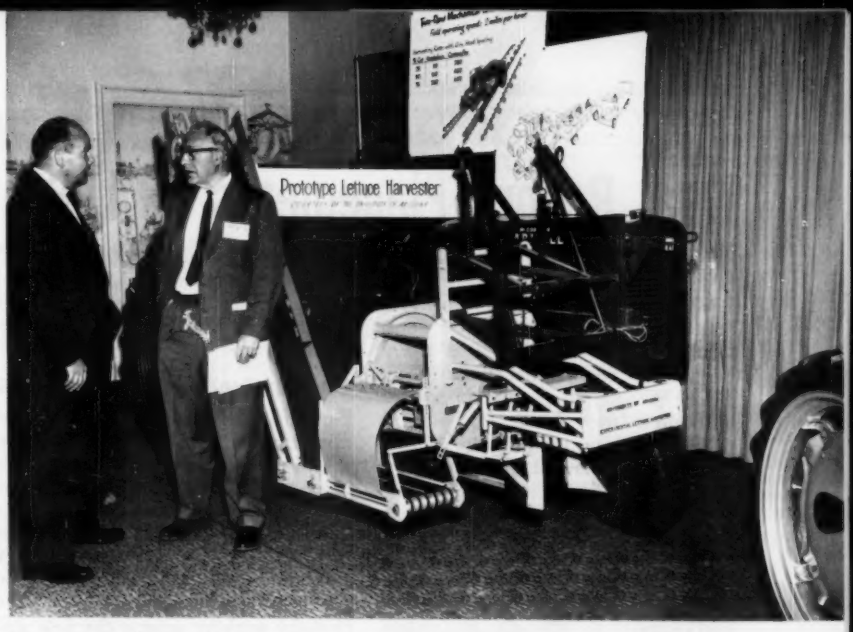
farm wage and salary workers, with a 1.5-year average, ranked at the very bottom of the tenure ladder. These are the workers to whom mastery of a skill could bring stability.

It is this great turnover of labor which gives urgency to attracting new workers into seasonal agricultural work. Youngsters who grow up on a farm have traditionally worked side by side with grownups. In recent years dayhauls established for youth have given increased numbers the opportunity to taste farm work. From California to Connecticut, from Minnesota to Louisiana, the success of such programs indicates that youths enjoy the work. This vast source of labor remains relatively untapped in many areas of the Nation, but is one which will receive particular emphasis in 1964.

Foreign labor-using States have an imminent problem. Although there has been a general downtrend in the use of Mexican nationals in U.S. agriculture—from almost ½ million "braceros" in 1956 to under 200,000 in 1962—there was a tone of finality about congressional action on Public Law 78 last December. A man-to-man replacement of domestic worker for foreign worker would call for an expanded domestic work force of about 200,000. But the problem is not that simple. Conservatively, normal turnover would require recruitment of a considerably larger number in order to assure sufficient workers trained and available when needed. To get this recruitment job done will call for expansion of effort in several program areas.

State Employment Services are now making good use of volunteer farm representatives in many areas. Presently about 3,000 volunteer farm representatives work in 25 States, and they are instrumental in making almost 100,000 placements annually. Expanded use of community-minded volunteer workers is essential to the success of plans for an expanded domestic agricultural work force.

Increased use of temporary State agency employees to conduct recruitment or coordinate migratory movement of farmworkers during periods of high labor demand is another method which will assist in solving the problem, while keeping an eye on the cost of operation. Such methods will allow State agencies to step up recruitment programs in areas of persistent rural unemployment and underemployment.



The experimental lettuce harvesting and cantaloupe harvesting machines on these two pages were exhibited at the 38th Annual Western Growers Association meeting in Los Angeles late in 1963.

Several changes, then, are in prospect for those whose task it is to meet future needs of and for farm labor: (1) The farm employer's reliance upon foreign labor must sharply diminish or disappear; (2) recruitment of qualified domestic workers must be greatly intensified; (3) motivation must be provided for the hard core of unskilled nonagricultural workers and increased numbers of young people to find suitable employment in modern agriculture; (4) interest must be stimulated in further improving working conditions and thereby improving the dignity of farmwork; and (5) the need for training in farm skills must be ascertained and such programs established in areas of need.

Only a nationwide network, such as the Farm Labor Service and the local offices affiliated with the U.S. Employment Service, is capable of attempting to coordinate a nationwide agricultural labor force. No other organization in the economy attempts to serve the farmer and worker in this manner. The Farm Labor Service is *the* employment service for agriculture.

While the changes presently occurring within the agricultural labor market are dramatic, they share their drama with the changes of yesterday and tomorrow, and they are neither unpredictable nor unsurmountable. Today, farm employer, worker, and community look to the Farm Labor Service to assist in their mutual problems. The changes to be faced tomorrow will, in no small measure, be determined by how well the Farm Labor Service does its assigned job today.

Machines in Citrus Harvest

Florida's citrus harvest labor needs may take a dip if mechanical tree shakers now being used experimentally are perfected. Citrus Experiment Station researchers have used a prototype on Valencia, Hamlin, and pineapple oranges, and on grapefruit. Major problems center around preventing damage to the fruit and tree, which the researchers feel won't take too long to solve, and the effect the shaking operation will have on future yields, which will take several seasons to determine.

Near Record Placements in 1963

Nonfarm placements of 6,581,000 in 1963 were second in volume to the 1962 postwar high. Fewer employer contacts and job openings received in local offices were reflected in the 2 percent decline in placements from 1962. Young people under age 22 accounted for almost 25 percent (1,548,000) and workers age 45 and above for 20 percent (1,316,000) of placements in nonfarm jobs. The greater training and experience of older workers are reflected in the 22 percent placed in professional jobs and 27 percent in skilled openings. Veterans accounted for 17 percent (1,113,000) of all nonagricultural placements, and handicapped applicants filled 278,000 jobs. Compared with a year earlier, placements of handicapped older workers (106,000) gained 4 percent in 1963. (See tables 1 and 2, pages 49 and 50.)

Placements in professional and managerial occupations rose by 6 percent over the year, in contrast to small losses in all other occupational groups except service jobs, which gained slightly in 1963. Manufacing placements declined somewhat, as did the rate of new hires.

Among the States with gains over 1962, West Virginia's placements were up 10 percent and Kentucky's 67,000 up 2 percent. Both of these States have had serious job opportunity losses for years, mainly because of the coal industry decline.

3.2 Million Placements in 55 SMSA's

While placements in the 55 large areas tapered off in 1963, they still accounted for about half of the national total. Their gains in professional and managerial placements paralleled the 6 percent national increase. As professional and managerial job opportunities are principally in large cities, some 71 percent of these placements were in the 55 major areas, and 70 percent in 1962. Accounting for the largest number of placements, as nationally, service occupations gained 13,000 in the 55 areas, compared with a 1,000 national increase over 1962. Small declines occurred in the remaining occupational groups.

New Applications Increase in 1963

Nearly half of the 10,980,000 new applicants in 1963, 2 percent more than in 1962, were youths and older workers. Youths accounted for 3,508,000, older workers for 1,912,000, handicapped workers for 456,000, and veterans—about 130,000 also handicapped—for 1,461,000 registrations. The number of older workers among the new applicants increased by 1 percent over 1962.

Approximately 2,073,000 job counseling interviews were held with 1,211,000 individuals in 1963—about 171 interviews per 100 persons, compared with 2,092,000 interviews with 1,214,000 counselees in 1962—a ratio of 172 interviews per 100 persons counseled. In each year, about 11 percent of all new applicants received counseling interviews. Nearly three-fifths (695,000) of the 1963 counselees were youths; the high proportion related to their lack of experience and the increasing complexity of the job market. Older workers accounted for 129,000 of the counselees in 1963, veterans for 113,000, and handicapped workers 161,000, all down from 1962. More than a third of all handicapped new applicants were counseled in each year, as their problems often require more than one kind of local office service.

Job Testing Activities

Job tests were given to 2,357,300 individuals in 1963, 4.6 percent more than in 1962. Largely reflecting increased activity under the Manpower Development and Training program, persons given specific aptitude tests (measuring potential skills in a particular occupation) increased 7 percent from 869,000 in 1962 to 933,000 in 1963. Cooperative high school testing also expanded, as reflected in the gain of 4 percent in the number given general aptitude tests (covering potential skills in many broad occupational groups)—from 740,000 in 1962 to 767,000 in 1963. Proficiency tests (measuring skill acquired in an occupation) were given to 657,000 individuals in 1963, 2 percent more than in 1962.

Farm Placements Down

In line with the continuing downtrend in agricultural employment and placement, the 7,236,000 farm placements made in 1963 were nearly 15 percent below 1962. Increasing mechanization and more intensive cultivation (use of fertilizers and sprays) have accelerated the decrease. In addition, cutbacks in the tomato crop and frost-reduced citrus harvests contributed to the 1962–63 decline.

—Branch of Labor Market Operations Research.

Nonfarm Placements in the United States and in 55 Largest Metropolitan Areas, by Occupation, Calendar Year 1963*

Occupational groupings	U.S.	Percent nonfarm placements	55 metropolitan areas	Percent of nonfarm placements
Total [1]	6,581,100	100.0	3,222,500	100.0
Professional and managerial	251,500	3.8	177,300	5.5
Clerical and sales	1,020,100	15.5	531,600	16.5
Service	2,140,000	32.5	1,147,400	35.6
Skilled	369,500	5.6	560,500	17.4
Semiskilled	876,000	13.3		
Unskilled and other	1,924,000	29.3	804,000	25.0

[1] Items may not total due to rounding.
*Includes Puerto Rico, Guam, and Virgin Islands.

European Manpower Programs

(Part I)

ALFRED L. GREEN

A study and appraisal of manpower programs as related to a policy of full employment in France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Sweden.

Has Europe any lessons for the U.S. on full employment and an active labor market policy?

Seven ES administrators went there to study, and one of them reports on his findings.

In the spring of 1963, seven State Administrators of Employment Security were selected by the United States Department of Labor to undertake a 5-week study and appraisal of manpower program experience in four European countries. The overall objective was to observe, study, and report on experience in implementing policies of full employment in France, Great Britain, The Netherlands, and Sweden.

Interest in these European countries stems from the fact that they have approximated a condition of full employment during the past 10 years. To do so, they adopted specific economic policies and programs. At the same time, they dealt broadly with maladjustments in the labor market which, if unresolved, would most likely have prevented full employment and the operation of the economy at capacity levels.

The United States' policy to promote maximum employment derives from the Employment Act of 1946. There is general recognition, however, that the policy has not been fully implemented. The concern about the situation is reflected in the President's proposed tax program. There has also been a growing recognition in the United States that full employment cannot be achieved without simultaneous and parallel actions designed to deal directly with maladjustments in the labor market. To that end, a number of steps have already been taken. Some of these are the Area Redevelopment Act, the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Trade Expansion Act's adjustment features, the Public Works Acceleration Act, major expansion and improvement of the public employment service system, and establishment of a Manpower Administration within the U.S. Department of Labor. More actions can be expected to follow.

A very heavy proportion of the manpower programs involved in dealing with maladjustments in the labor market are or will be carried out through the State employment security agencies. Accordingly, seven State Administrators, chosen for their long experience in the system, were selected by the Bureau of Employment Security to study and appraise manpower program experience in the aforementioned four European countries and to make reports and recommendations to the Bureau of Employment Security. The Administrators chosen were considered qualified both to provide practical advice to the U.S. Department of Labor on the operating phases of a manpower program, and to interpret and explain the program in employment service idiom to other State Administrators.

Each of the seven was assigned a particular phase of the manpower study. While it was intended that

This picture was made while the group of administrators composing the European Study group were in England. Left to right: Sam Bernstein, Ill.; R. L. Coffman, Tex.; Curtis Harding, Utah; Clinton A. Johnson, BES regional administrator, Seattle; James L. Bland, Ark.; Henry Kendall, N.C.; Alfred Green, N.Y.; Bernard Teets, Colo.; Michael March, U.S. Bureau of the Budget; and E. P. Pipson, British Ministry of Labour, Overseas Department. Seated: John Correll, Labor Attache, American Embassy, London.

Alfred L. Green is Executive Director, Division of Employment, New York State Department of Labor.

The walled city of Visby, Sweden (on the island of Gotland). Agriculture and sheep raising, the island's main activities, could not hold the young labor force from migrating to the mainland. The Swedish National Labor Market Board, which includes the Employment Service, financed the building of a new electrical plant as part of its plan to placed them in other jobs.

all would review the total program, the individual assignments were made to permit a detailed and thorough examination of specific portions of it. Administrators did advance reading and preparation on both the total program and the specific assignments. In a briefing session in Washington, the Bureau of International Labor Affairs of the Department of Labor arranged for experts from its own staff and from the State Department to discuss the economies and government structure of the countries on the itinerary.

Using guidelines prepared by the Bureau, the United States Labor Attachés in the four European countries were asked to develop a program to enable the group to achieve its objective. This program included a planned itinerary, arrangements for meetings with government officials and informed private persons, and visits to employment services, training agencies, planning organizations, and the like.

European and U.S. Systems Compared

In the countries visited, especially in Sweden, France, and The Netherlands, giant steps have been taken to create an active labor market program and to achieve the goal of full employment without inflation. All countries have accepted the central idea of an active labor market policy—the need for a highly adaptable and mobile labor force to meet the economic growth demands of the nation. The United States, in comparison, appears to be lagging. However, certain conditions exist abroad that are without counterpart in the United States. Some understanding of these factors is needed before comparisons can be made of individual measures, such as vocational training, worker mobility, industrial mobility, and financial incentives to industry for expansion.

Size of Countries.—Sweden, with a population of 7½ million, is slightly larger than California and 1/20 the size of the United States. Great Britain, with a population of 51 million, is only one-half the size of Sweden. The Netherlands, with a population of 11½ million, is a small country geographically not much larger than Massachusetts or Maryland. France, with a population of 46 million, is roughly 1/15 the size of the United States.

Full Employment.—Sweden has had, on the average, less than a 2 percent unemployment rate for the last 20 years. France has an unemployment rate of less than 2 percent and in The Netherlands less than 1 percent of the male working population is unemployed. (In The Netherlands, historically, not much attention is paid to women in the labor market.) Great Britain's rate of unemployment rose in the winter of 1963 to 4 percent but is now between 2 percent and 3 percent. There are some pockets of heavy unemployment, especially in Scotland (5–6 percent) and in Northern Ireland (8–10 percent). Some European countries are importing labor from such nations as Italy and Algeria.

The active labor market policies are successful in European countries because there is no major problem of creating job opportunities; adequate job opportunities exist. Can such policies be successful in the United States where full employment has not been achieved?

Central Planning.—There is evidence of a greater degree of public planning and control in the European countries visited than in the United States. In Sweden, the National Labor Market Board, consisting of representatives of government, employer associations, and trade unions, has an influential role in setting the economic and manpower policies of the country. An economic growth target of 50 percent in 10 years has been set. During 1960–63, actual growth averaged 4 percent yearly.

In France, under government aegis and with various commissions in operation, four plans have been devised since the end of World War II (Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipment). Each has been successful. Plan IV takes in the period 1962–65. A target has been set for a 5½ percent annual economic growth over this 4-year period.

In The Netherlands, the Social-Economic Council, working closely with the Foundation of Labor, an organization consisting of employer and union central bodies, does a similar job, except that its planning is on a

shorter-range (yearly) basis.

In Great Britain, central planning emerged with the establishment of a National Economic Development Council (NEDDY) in 1961. Its purpose is to recommend measures the government must take to achieve a 4 percent yearly growth during the years 1961–66.

Employer-Employee Relations.—In European countries generally, and in Sweden particularly, there is recognition that labor and management must work together to solve their differences without strikes. In Sweden, representatives of the Swedish Employers' Confederation, Confederation of Swedish Trade Unions, Swedish Central Organization of Salaried Employees, and the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations are on the governing body of the National Labour Market Board.

National Employment Services.—The employment services of each country visited are nationalized and under the central direction of the Ministry of Labor or its counterpart.

There is greater acceptance in Europe by employers, employees, and the public of the role of the employment services in fostering an active labor market program than in the United States.

Private Employment Agencies.—Private employment agencies play a very small role in European countries. In Sweden, the National Labour Market Board, which supervises the private employment agencies, does not permit private agencies working on a profit basis. In France, the National Employment Service has a virtual monopoly on job orders. In The Netherlands, the same situation prevails; the government can grant a license to private bodies either for profit or nonprofit purposes. However, private placement work is small. In 1962 in The Netherlands, about 20,000 placements were made by 46 private agencies; about one-fourth of these were in the performing arts.

Discrimination in Employment.—There is no evidence of discrimination in employment because of race, creed, or color as we know it in the United States. There is no problem as pervasive and disturbing as the one we have in establishing equal rights, for example, for Negroes and Puerto Ricans. In The Netherlands, however, religious differences permeate the country. Catholics tend to vote Catholic; Protestants, to vote Protestant. There are Catholic and Protestant department stores in the cities of The Hague and Amsterdam; employees of one are all Catholic, those in the other, all Protestant.

Level of Education.—Recent experiences in the United States with training programs reveal that, for large numbers of our unemployed, education must start with reading, writing, and arithmetic before occupational training can begin. This problem was not so critical in the European countries visited. Sweden and The Netherlands have no illiteracy. In France, some difficulties exist with unemployed miners and workers in the shipbuilding industry who, because of lack of education, cannot be trained for new jobs.

(The concluding section of this article, "Summary and Conclusions," will appear in the April issue.)

Administrators visit Goteborg. In the background are 100-ton cranes towering over the world's first fully automated shipyard capable of building oceangoing vessels. New facilities, financed by government contracyclical investment reserve funds, resulted in a sharp reduction in employment. Unions and employers welcomed this technological change. The Labor Market Board retrained the workers who were laid off and placed them in other jobs.

Miami Makes Progress in Handling Its Cuban Refugee Problem

The exodus of Cuban nationals to the United States following Castro's seizure of power placed an unusual burden on Florida's economy. The major trouble spot was Miami as thousands of refugees flooded the area creating serious work situation difficulties in addition to the social problem attendant on such a mass movement.

Latest figures on Miami's work force attest to the manner in which the manpower aspect of the problem is being handled. As of November 1963, the area's labor force, including refugees, declined 2 percent, or 8,500, from the same month a year ago. Unemployment decreased by 23 percent or 11,000 over the corresponding period.

This appears to indicate good results from efforts to relocate these refugees and to place them in jobs in the community.

MAJOR COAL AREAS IN THE UNITED STATES

INDUSTRY MANPOWER

Coal Mining Jobs— Is Turning Point in Sight?

Decreasing demand and mechanization of processes have brought high unemployment in coal mining areas. Anticipated higher demands and new uses for coal will have some effect in halting the decline in employment.

Employment in the bituminous coal industry continued its long-term decline in recent years to an average of 132,200 during the first half of 1963, 8 percent below the same period of 1962 and the lowest since the industry passed its peak in the early 1920's.

The decrease in the industry's work force has been accompanied by a substantial rise in output per man-day. Tonnage output has, in general, declined sharply since 1947, providing a further depressant to employment. Productivity during 1962 rose 10.4 percent over 1961 to 15.3 tons per man-day, the highest in the history of the industry. In 1962, despite a rise in coal output of 4.7 percent over the previous year to 422 million tons—the highest level since 1957—employment fell 5.0 percent.

The striking rise in productivity in recent years, due principally to the introduction of continuous mining machines and mechanical loading equipment, in conjunction with a drop in transportation costs, has enabled the industry to retain a substantial measure of its competitive position in the fuel market.

Two-thirds of the Nation's bituminous coal employment is located in West Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Kentucky. The largest relative decline in coal employment since 1947 (74 percent) occurred in Pennsylvania. The smallest was in Virginia (28 percent).

As a result of the industry's employment decline, most coal mining areas are characterized by serious unemployment. Of the total employment in coal mining covered by the 1962 survey, four out of every five workers were employed in areas of high unemployment. Over 60 percent of the surveyed employment was in small labor market areas, most of which rely on coal mining as their basic industry and have few alternative job opportunities for their unemployed.

Annual earnings in coal mining have also declined in relation to other industries because of reductions in the length of the workweek. The shorter workweek reflects both a change in hours under union contracts and increased productivity.

Retraining programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Area Redevelopment Act have had little effect thus far on displaced workers in bituminous coal mining. The lack of job opportunities in many coal mining areas, the inability or unwillingness of many miners to leave their home communities, and the fact that mining areas are generally remote from metropolitan areas where most of the training facilities are located are factors which have limited the retraining of these workers. Recently approved MDTA programs for 3,500 workers in Kentucky and 2,700 in West Virginia will bring a new approach to problems of training in rural areas.

(*Continued on page 45*)

This survey covers the bituminous coal mining industry defined as Bituminous Coal, 1957 Standard Industrial Classification Code 1211. The analysis is based largely upon individual establishment reports gathered in November 1962 by local offices of State employment security agencies affiliated with the Bureau of Employment Security. The 252 reporting units surveyed—each employing 100 or more workers—had a total employment of 74,181, representing 87 percent of employment in firms with 100 or more workers and 54 percent of the total employment in the industry.

The complete report on bituminous coal mining, upon which this article is based, is No. 106 in the series of Industry Manpower Surveys. *Copies are available on request to the Branch of Industry and Skill Surveys of the United States Employment Service, Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor.*

es newsletter

NEW PROGRAMS: President Johnson signed the Vocational Education Act into law on December 18, 1963. It authorized appropriations in the amount of $60 million for vocational training for fiscal year 1964, rising successively each year to $255 million for fiscal year 1967.

To qualify for Federal funds, a State needs to submit through its State board to the commissioner (of education) a plan which, among other requirements, "provides for entering into cooperative arrangements with the system of public employment offices in the State, approved by the State board and the State head of such system, looking toward such offices making available to the State board and local vocational education agencies occupational information regarding reasonable prospects of employment in the community and elsewhere, and toward consideration of such information by such board and agencies in providing vocational guidance to students and prospective students and in determining the occupations for which persons are to be trained; and looking toward guidance and counseling personnel of the State board and local educational agencies making available to public employment offices information regarding the occupational qualifications of persons leaving or completing vocational education courses or schools, and toward consideration of such information by such offices in the occupational guidance and placement of such persons."

JOINT EFFORT: A State-BES Work Committee on Counseling Services (December 9-13) reviewed objectives of the counseling program and made recommendations designed to clarify the scope, assumptions, and definition of ES counseling and the role and function of the employment counselor. These recommendations are being reviewed at the national office level.

Another State-BES Work Committee on Reports Validation continued the work started by a similar committee which met in October. Three task forces considered reports on local office activity, ARA and MDTA, and farm labor. It was recommended that the 1961 edition of the Handbook for Reports Validation, Local Office Activities be brought up to date and that guidelines be developed for validation of reports not already covered in Bureau handbooks. The Handbook will be given top priority. If at all possible, a complete set of guidelines will be in the hands of State agencies early in 1964. Following experience in earlier use, the guidelines will be issued in handbook form.

YOUTH PUBLICATIONS: Three of the 25 bestsellers at the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, are the USES publications

"How To Get and Hold the Right Job," "Choosing Your Occupation," and "Job Guide for Young Workers."

REJECTEES: The President's Task Force on Manpower Conservation requested the Employment Service, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, and Selective Service to conduct a survey of Selective Service rejectees. The survey, which took place November 11-29, involved interviews by ES counselors and placement interviewers with 2,500 persons in 200 installations in 37 States. Some of the findings to date are...

Age: 75 percent of rejectees were 22-44 years old.

Work Status: 70 percent were working; 26 percent, looking for work; 4 percent, not working and not looking.

Education: Median years, 9-1/2; 20 percent had 4 years of high school or more; 24 percent, less than 8 years completed.

Skills: Of those working, 54 percent were unskilled or semiskilled; over 80 percent were willing to accept job training. Interviewers' assessment was that 86 percent needed some service such as counseling, and 55 percent needed training (about 32 percent, vocational training; 23 percent, literacy training).

Some arrangement is contemplated whereby Selective Service will refer mental rejectees to the Employment Service before they become part of the hard-core unemployed group.

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY: Each State agency was asked to send to Washington, by December 20, 1963, copies of instructions, policies, and procedures issued to obtain compliance with the following item of GAL No. 711, dated June 28, 1963: "Fully comply with established policies which prohibit any form of discrimination based on race, creed, color, or national origin in services provided to applicants, claimants, or others, including registration, selection, and referral for employment or training opportunities, counseling, or testing."

Senator Javits, in a letter of April 24, 1963, asked the Secretary of Labor whether the Department possessed sufficient authority to condition the grant of Federal funds upon assurance of nondiscrimination, and raised questions concerning the ending of segregated facilities and services in State employment security offices. According to Under Secretary Henning's reply of July 25, "it is the position of the Department of Labor that we have sufficient legal authority to condition grants of Federal funds upon assurance that the funds will be administered in a nondiscriminatory manner."

LAYOFFS: BES is working with the Office of the Under Secretary in developing plans for cooperating with the Department of Defense and military base commanders in providing needed assistance to workers affected by defense cutbacks. Although Secretary of Defense McNamara states that each civilian worker to be displaced in the announced closing or reduction of operations in 25 to 27 military bases will be offered a job, not all workers will be able to accept the jobs offered, and the areas affected may suffer severely from reduced revenues. With the early warning they have, however, State employment security officials, working with base commanders and community groups, will be able to plan action to help meet cutback problems.

This twin borer continuous miner rips coal from the face of the seam and passes it back to a conveyor belt or shuttle cars. It can cut and load up to 8 tons of coal a minute, eliminating the separate operations of cutting, drilling, blasting, and loading. It cuts a path up to 8 feet high and 13 feet wide and is adjustable to smaller spaces.

(*Continued from page 42*)

Forecasts of coal requirements by the U.S. Bureau of Mines indicate that output by 1980 should be more than twice as great as in 1962, primarily as a result of greater demands from electric power companies. Employment may make modest gains during this period, certainly at a far slower rate than the gain in production, but it will still be substantially below the high levels of the 1948–50 period.

Coal Output Declines

The alltime peak in bituminous coal output occurred in 1947 when over 630 millions tons were mined. By 1962, output had dropped 33 percent to 422 million tons (table 1). The decline in demand for bituminous coal was due largely to the conversion from steam to diesel locomotives—mostly in the late forties—and to the increasing use of oil and gas for space heating and other purposes. The loss of these markets, however, has been partially offset by an increase in the demand for bituminous coal for the generation of electricity. Nevertheless, while consumption of coal by power plants has increased markedly, even this extra demand has been blunted by the increasing output of electricity per unit of coal burned.

Improved technology within the coal mining industry has brought about substantial productivity gains. Dramatic increases resulted from the use of continuous mining machines which combine the extraction and loading of coal into one operation. Introduced in 1948, 15 of these machines were used to produce 450,000 tons; by 1961, about 1,000 of the machines mined 86 million tons, or 31 percent of that year's total underground production.

Other significant technological developments include giant shovels for open-pit mining, larger draglines, improved excavators and augers, the use of machines in mining coal seams as thin as 30 inches, the introduction of water jets under high pressure to mine coal, automatic loading equipment, and the new "pushbutton miner" which is just being introduced. This machine is a self-propelled continuous mining machine that can penetrate a coal seam as much as 1,000 feet. It has a number of individually powered conveyor sections which are stored on a spiral ramp and are moved into position as needed, depending upon the depth of the cutting end of the machine.

Cheaper Transportation Improves Markets

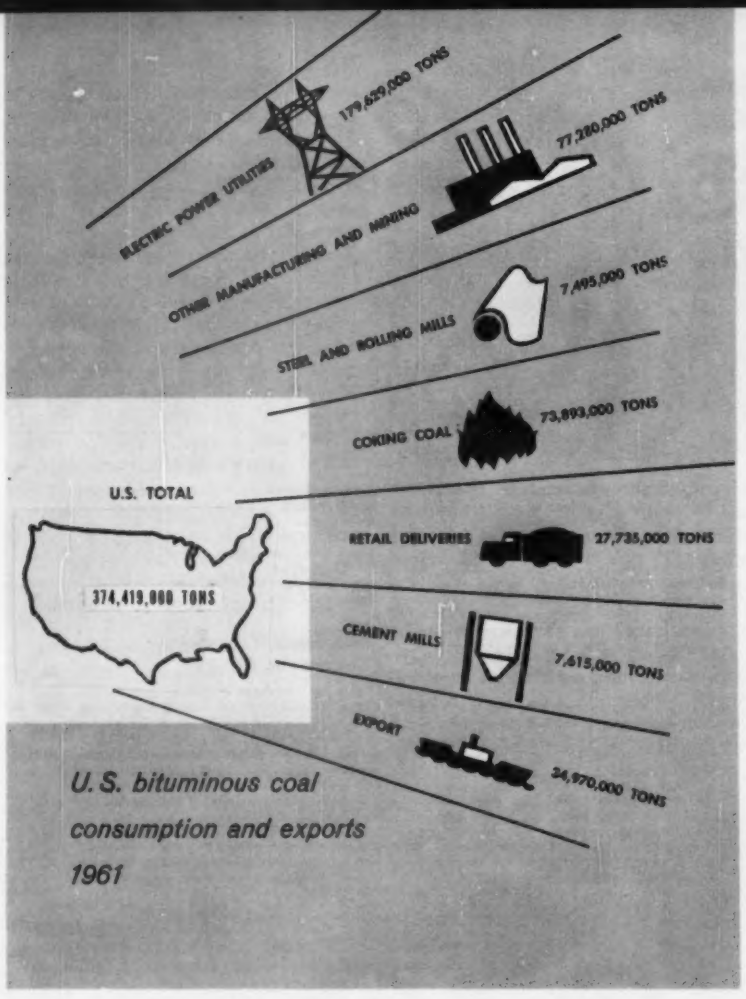
In an effort to reduce the cost of moving coal to market, the industry in recent years has given increasing attention to methods of transportation other than railroads, which at

TABLE 1.—*Bituminous coal mining employment and output, 1947–62*

Year	Average annual employment			Production worker average weekly hours	Production in net tons (millions)
	Total (thousands)	Production workers (thousands)	Percent production workers of total		
1947	425.6	411.0	96.6	40.3	631
1948	436.1	420.0	96.3	37.7	600
1949	393.3	376.1	95.6	32.3	438
1950	367.9	351.4	95.5	34.7	516
1951	372.0	355.8	95.6	34.9	534
1952	327.8	311.2	94.9	33.8	467
1953	288.9	273.6	94.7	34.1	457
1954	228.5	213.6	93.5	32.3	392
1955	218.7	204.9	93.7	37.3	465
1956	228.6	213.4	93.4	37.5	501
1957	229.8	212.9	92.6	36.3	493
1958	193.0	175.1	90.7	33.3	410
1959	178.5	159.4	89.3	35.8	412
1960	168.5	149.2	88.5	35.8	416
1961	147.1	129.3	87.9	35.9	403
1962	139.8	123.0	88.0	[1] 36.7	422
Net change 1947–1962	−285.8	−288.0	.....	−3.6	−209
Percent change 1947–1962	−67.2	−70.1	.....	−8.9	−33.1

[1] 11-month average.

Sources: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and U.S. Bureau of Mines.



U. S. bituminous coal consumption and exports 1961

present take the bulk of the industry's output to markets. The use of conveyor belts, and transportation by pipeline of pulverized coal mixed with water (forming a slurry), have been demonstrated to have practical applications in some areas. Also under development is the gasification of coal at the mine and transportation of the gas through conventional pipelines.

To compete with such alternative methods of transporting coal, the railroads are initiating substantial rate reductions. Resultant savings may be sufficient to discourage the construction of new slurry pipeline facilities or even to close existing ones.

Transportation costs are also being reduced by locating electric generating plants—especially for the public utility and aluminum industries—near the coal mine. Because of recent technological advances, it is cheaper, in some instances, to transmit electricity directly from the coal fields (referred to as mine-mouth stations or mine-site power plants) than to transport coal to a generating station near the consuming center.

Production Worker Employment Off

From 1947 to 1962, the number of production workers declined over 70 percent—from 411,000 to 123,000 (table 1), while average tons per man-day rose 138 percent—from 6.42 to 15.31 tons.

In 1947, production workers constituted 97 percent of the work force; by 1962 these workers represented only 88 percent (table 1). Changes between 1950 and 1960 in coal mining occupations indicate that almost four-fifths of the decline took place in the mine operative and laborer groups.

The introduction of automatic loading equipment has displaced such workers as the boom man, while the use of continuous mining machines may result in the displacement of the cutting machine operator and helper as well as the loading machine operator. Due to improvements in machines, fewer rock dusting men are now needed, while improved techniques in materials handling have reduced the number of workers needed in this area by approximately one-half. In many mines, the timberman has been replaced by the roof bolting machine operator. Preparation plants can now be staffed by 4 or 5 workers, rather than the 15 to 20 previously needed, as a result of closed circuit television and the use of control panels in carrying out various operations. Clerical staff has increased, however, because of more recordkeeping and report preparation.

Not only has employment in coal mining dropped sharply, but the average workweek since 1947 has also fallen below the workweeks in other segments of the mining industry. Part of this reduction resulted from the union contract which became effective in July 1947. Inside dayworkers went from a 9-hour to an 8-hour day while outside dayworkers went from an 8¼-hour to a 7¼-hour day. In addition, because of economic factors facing this industry, the length of the workweek fell to as low as 32 hours in 1949 and 1954. During the first half of 1963, the workweek averaged 39 hours, the highest level for these months since 1947.

Coal Jobs in Seven States

Seven States—West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Virginia, Illinois, Ohio, and Alabama—accounted for 90 percent of bituminous coal employment in 1961. West Virginia accounted for 30 percent of the 1961 employment, while an additional 35 percent was distributed between Pennsylvania and Kentucky.

The remaining four States—Virginia, Illinois, Ohio, and Alabama—had a combined total of approximately one-fourth of the industry's nationwide employment in 1961.

In each of the years 1947, 1954, and 1961, the proportion of coal employment in these seven States of total United States coal employment was fairly stable. West Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Kentucky remained the three highest States, in that order, over the entire period. The only significant shift in relative position involved Virginia which ranked seventh in employment in 1947, and fourth in 1961. This change occurred because the State's rate of decline (28 percent) was much lower than for the other six States; according to the U.S. Bureau of Mines, there were 262 active mines in Virginia in 1951, 555 in 1954, and 1,109 in 1961. Losses in the other six States ranged from 58 percent in Kentucky to 74 percent in Pennsylvania.

Twenty-two areas employed 1,000 or more workers in bituminous coal mining for a total of 58,800, or almost 80 percent of the employment in all surveyed establishments in November 1962 (table 2). Half of the total employment in these 22 areas was in *smaller* labor market areas, that is, areas which range in size of work force from 50,000 down to 15,000. An additional 10 percent of the 22-area employment was in *very small* labor market areas—those having a work force of less than 15,000. About one-quarter of the employment was located in the following *major* labor market areas (more than 50,000 work force): Pittsburgh and Johnstown, Pa.; Charleston, W. Va.; and Birmingham, Ala.

Of all employment covered in the survey, 84 percent was in areas classified by the Bureau of Employment Security as having substantial, or substantial and persistent unemployment. Smaller labor market areas accounted for 43 percent of the employment, and an additional 18 percent was in very small areas. Many of these areas are one-industry towns which are dependent on coal for their economic well-being and which generally have a minimum of alternative job opportunities.

This strip mining shovel towering 220 feet in the air removes earth and rock from above a coal seam. The dipper, with a capacity of about 200 tons, can remove overburden to a depth of more than 140 feet. It is controlled by one man who commutes to his air-conditioned cab, five stories up, by an elevator which runs through the center shaft of the revolving machine. Note the size of the white truck at the bottom.

A substantial portion—80 percent—of the Nation's bituminous coal mining capacity is located in the Appalachian States. To help alleviate the long-term economic distress of this area, the Appalachian Regional Commission was established by the President on April 9, 1963. This Commission is preparing an action program in cooperation with various public and private agencies to deal more effectively with the economic problems of this region. This program will include greatly expanded training and retraining projects for the unemployed.

TABLE 2.—*Bituminous coal mining employment in surveyed establishments in areas with over 1,000 coal mining workers, November 1962*

Area	Reporting establishments		Labor market classification [1]
	Number	Employment	
Total, 22 areas	180	[2] 58,810	
Logan-Madison, W. Va.	17	6,323	(s)*
Welch, W. Va.	12	5,265	(s)*
Pittsburgh, Pa.	23	4,833	E
Charleston, W. Va.	13	3,882	D
Richlands, Va.	8	3,361	(4)
Waynesburg, Pa.	6	3,338	(*)
Birmingham, Ala.	6	3,273	D
Beckley, W. Va.	16	3,174	(s)*
Harrisburg-W. Frankfort-Herrin, Ill.	13	2,978	(s)*
Madisonville, Ky.	12	2,772	(s)*
Johnstown, Pa.	8	2,766	F
Fairmont, W. Va.	5	2,486	(s)*
Harlan, Ky.	9	2,027	(*)
Hazard, Ky.	5	1,978	(*)
Price, Utah	4	1,586	(*)
Ronceverte-White Sulphur Springs, W. Va.	6	1,531	(s)*
Uniontown–Connellsville, Pa.	4	1,439	(s)*
New Philadelphia, Ohio	(3)	(3)	(4)
Prestonburg, Ky.	(3)	(3)	(*)
Bridgeport, Ohio	(3)	(3)	(4)
Pikeville, Ky.	(3)	(3)	(s)*
Indiana, Pa.	(3)	(3)	(s)*

[1] "D," "E," and "F" classifications designate areas of substantial unemployment in major labor market areas. "(s)*" classification indicates substantial and persistent unemployment in smaller areas while the "*" is a similar classification of unemployment for very small areas.

[2] Accounts for 42.6 percent of total industry employment as published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[3] Information withheld to avoid disclosing data for individual firms.

[4] Not classified.

Source: Bureau of Employment Security.

Annual Earnings Fall Behind

The rate of increase in annual earnings in bituminous coal mining between 1947 and 1962 was substantially smaller than those of other mining industries and of the all-manufacturing average. Although annual earnings in bituminous coal increased 72 percent between 1947 and 1962, gains in other segments of the mining industry ranged from 101 to 119 percent.

The resultant loss of the high rank once held by annual earnings of the coal industry reflected the reduction in the length of the workweek during this period. Hourly earnings continue to compare favorably with those of other industries.

Future Gains Expected

Coal requirements are expected to rise appreciably in future years and by 1980 are projected to reach 940 million tons, more than double the 1962 output of 422 million tons, according to the U.S. Bureau of Mines. The bulk of this increase is attributed to a striking rise in the demand for electric power. At present, coal represent about 64 percent of all fuels consumed by electric utility plants; by 1980 it may account for 75 percent.

The Bureau of Mines has also been involved in developing other uses of coal. Eventual commercial production of liquid fuels and high BTU gas is being studied. Research is also underway on the injection of pulverized coal into blast furnaces in the production of coke. Countless nonfuel products of coal are being studied, including various chemicals and oil derivatives as well as many commercial products.

The place of nuclear energy in the total energy market of 1980 has been the subject of much speculation, with estimates ranging from less than 1 percent to more than 8 percent of the total energy produced. The Atomic Energy Commission estimates that by 1980 only 10 percent of our electric power will come from reactors. While it is difficult to assess how much of the prospective nuclear energy will represent displaced coal markets, the effect of nuclear energy upon future coal output does not appear to be highly significant at this time.

While output is expected to more than double by 1980, employment may also rise but by a much smaller proportion because of further gains in productivity. It is expected that all but the smaller mines will be fully mechanized before 1980, according to the report of the National Fuels and Energy Study Group. Any anticipated gains in employment, however, are too remote to alleviate the current unemployment problem which has characterized the bituminous coal mining industry for many years.

—JAMES W. HIGGINS, *United States Employment Service.*

Military Purchases Assist Depressed Area

The economy of the Wilkes-Barre–Hazleton, Pa. area—one of the areas with persistent unemployment problems—received a significant stimulus as a result of a Defense Department order for 710,000 tons of coal for U.S, military installations in West Germany. It is estimated this meant the equivalent of about 4 weeks of added working time for local workers in the mining industry.

Photographs and other illustrations courtesy National Coal Association.

Table 1. Selected Local Office Employment Security Activities, January-December 1963

State	Nonfarm Job Openings		Nonfarm Employer Contacts		New Applications 2/		Counseling Interviews		Placements					
										Nonagricultural				
	Total available openings 1/	Percentage change from year ago	Total (except mail)	Percentage change from year ago	Number	Percentage change from year ago	Total	Percentage change from year ago	Total	Number	Percentage change from year ago	Persons under 22 years	Persons 45 years and over	Veterans 3/
Total	8,419,410	-1.4	1,444,422	-7.6	10,980,324	1.7	2,073,268	-0.9	13,817,500	6,581,060	-2.1	1,491,939	1,312,430	1,112,582
Alabama	149,998	4.6	31,524	-6.0	147,182	1.2	20,021	16.9	197,884	121,485	6.5	29,053	17,519	12,894
Alaska	13,538	13.7	3,831	4.3	17,974	8.4	3,172	-7.8	10,308	10,031	17.0	2,160	1,514	1,574
Arizona	153,676	2.8	18,860	-4.8	127,199	1.4	15,479	-27.1	841,459	115,108	6.0	20,801	19,295	23,461
Arkansas	117,715	-5.6	17,548	-7.2	154,277	-1.5	27,413	-10.1	301,808	107,821	-7.4	26,752	20,304	14,679
California	1,071,349	1.3	166,859	.9	1,512,735	7.2	200,977	-6.1	1,060,838	784,412	1.1	215,444	164,377	174,316
Colorado	113,776	-10.2	16,463	-17.2	130,411	-3.7	20,712	-12.0	155,581	93,265	-9.3	24,595	15,863	22,517
Connecticut	131,525	-8.4	16,671	-19.9	182,985	4.0	31,097	-5.6	110,871	98,164	-6.7	23,396	19,723	14,751
Delaware	10,650	7.8	3,697	-26.6	18,653	-1.1	4,244	-3.9	11,289	7,099	3.2	963	1,253	805
Dist. of Col.	70,548	-.5	9,422	-7.4	70,508	3.8	20,219	1.5	47,623	47,623	-6.9	13,318	7,837	7,314
Florida	324,323	7.3	44,603	-10.6	237,192	-6.5	30,697	6.7	398,953	263,488	9.0	46,282	50,454	45,560
Georgia	191,003	5.2	20,843	-14.4	200,778	12.7	32,452	-3.3	257,422	161,428	6.2	27,647	19,917	20,186
Guam	10,657	28.1	46	13.0	1,540	15.0	3	-75.0	1,094	1,094	28.3	640	102	66
Hawaii	20,166	-2.9	4,528	17.3	42,228	5.1	5,337	12.4	16,063	13,954	-4.3	4,198	1,577	2,260
Idaho	43,955	-11.5	9,108	-9.6	52,360	-1.5	10,406	2.9	159,105	39,051	-12.8	13,006	7,322	7,005
Illinois	272,537	-1.9	40,816	-11.4	427,155	1.0	88,825	.7	279,645	213,266	-2.3	38,807	33,345	48,117
Indiana	146,660	-7.7	47,427	5.1	265,397	1.6	34,714	1.3	150,835	108,203	8.6	26,912	16,416	16,746
Iowa	105,057	-5.7	27,265	-8.6	95,375	-4.5	20,114	-12.0	119,436	88,568	-7.3	25,712	17,130	19,786
Kansas	107,276	-7.1	23,442	-9.8	101,279	5.5	22,517	-6.6	104,107	86,706	-6.3	20,856	18,363	15,842
Kentucky	78,329	1.5	13,767	-11.9	150,788	-1.3	38,793	9.4	163,505	67,100	1.7	16,146	11,677	10,875
Louisiana	106,798	9.8	19,701	-13.7	136,901	-5.4	21,615	-7.6	256,373	88,983	6.0	15,793	15,790	16,078
Maine	46,051	.4	6,808	16.8	47,243	4.7	13,244	-2.5	33,834	25,186	5.3	6,758	3,605	3,089
Maryland	109,983	3.1	21,259	2.8	163,731	-2.0	27,042	2.4	199,181	89,302	4.3	16,901	16,397	13,217
Massachusetts	245,440	-6.3	40,197	-8.1	332,068	3.7	62,686	4.6	216,153	168,219	-5.4	39,858	30,741	20,454
Michigan	272,639	5.7	29,917	-6.8	583,700	-8.1	72,198	-10.9	271,005	179,775	4.7	39,176	32,950	33,048
Minnesota	119,743	-12.3	25,750	3.2	189,699	2.7	25,522	7.8	136,679	96,552	-12.1	27,618	20,588	21,472
Mississippi	130,960	.7	25,086	-18.6	140,701	2.1	38,857	7.0	1,445,953	110,391	.2	25,649	15,915	10,801
Missouri	136,945	-.2	28,924	-18.1	234,131	-2.7	42,904	-2.7	284,115	103,827	.4	28,259	16,580	17,877
Montana	38,899	-12.3	20,331	-14.4	52,270	-2.5	19,411	1.8	66,044	33,103	-14.0	9,022	6,012	8,041
Nebraska	68,950	-3.5	30,079	.5	58,294	.5	19,421	22.3	88,546	61,782	-1.6	15,141	13,965	17,564
Nevada	44,820	4.1	6,370	-14.0	45,147	19.1	5,294	13.0	42,869	35,699	6.4	4,425	9,241	9,727
New Hampshire	25,280	-11.1	5,096	.8	43,670	4.2	8,675	-18.8	20,854	16,768	-8.9	5,572	2,572	2,200
New Jersey	204,195	-8.0	26,821	-15.7	341,927	7.6	45,502	7.0	270,699	141,713	-9.8	29,304	26,136	12,414
New Mexico	51,798	-4.4	11,090	-7.7	59,594	-4.2	12,738	23.2	64,838	46,822	-3.4	8,685	8,204	9,279
New York	1,089,719	-1.7	108,591	1.2	930,793	3.5	221,439	8.9	955,249	838,157	-1.0	109,871	232,940	93,791
North Carolina	193,759	-5.6	23,945	-11.0	247,370	1.8	44,208	3.5	729,600	151,137	-9.7	34,946	18,144	18,461
North Dakota	36,251	-.1	7,055	-7.0	35,328	37.6	5,763	-3.6	45,265	29,730	1.8	9,490	4,697	4,384
Ohio	295,215	.3	55,336	-34.5	577,074	-7.0	105,398	-28.6	414,208	232,851	-3.1	49,350	54,395	52,617
Oklahoma	187,709	6.2	39,501	-19.2	137,798	15.7	34,702	15.5	193,889	164,949	6.8	25,623	41,938	45,083
Oregon	92,548	.2	24,418	-17.7	133,339	8.1	34,105	7.9	408,066	76,945	-2.1	20,533	16,326	15,186
Pennsylvania	324,529	-1.0	107,367	-6.2	577,844	.9	180,182	-2.1	542,778	259,868	.5	54,774	54,902	36,448
Puerto Rico	54,944	9.0	11,358	-3.4	186,880	30.4	31,840	-2.5	61,585	48,195	8.4	8,725	5,362	2,258
Rhode Island	43,259	1.0	13,770	4.6	52,280	-3.0	12,869	.5	32,723	32,587	-.9	9,523	6,502	3,729
South Carolina	196,605	-.4	12,392	-1.5	104,413	-5.5	12,874	23.2	239,924	85,453	-2.4	20,788	13,070	9,824
South Dakota	33,980	-8.2	5,577	-.1	30,876	.7	8,052	27.7	37,120	25,294	-10.7	6,850	5,235	6,485
Tennessee	156,328	9.4	19,941	-9.0	155,644	-1.2	29,143	2.9	782,509	118,304	1.7	25,064	15,610	20,019
Texas	575,859	-11.1	98,553	-12.5	703,932	-.3	132,257	.9	833,353	470,733	-15.4	87,536	103,523	88,200
Utah	55,616	-8.3	11,011	-14.4	59,121	3.9	14,994	8.0	70,874	46,792	-10.2	14,268	8,235	9,783
Vermont	21,707	3.0	3,205	-14.2	21,977	-.2	2,451	-11.1	17,226	15,778	4.2	4,576	2,378	2,254
Virginia	152,519	-2.6	14,117	-30.4	151,803	-3.9	42,536	4.9	157,354	107,339	-.7	22,438	15,742	9,999
Virgin Islands	16,843	11.3	389	2.6	2,176	-19.7	1,104	30.5	1,465	1,458	-38.9	478	128	63
Washington	117,704	-5.5	25,808	13.8	200,310	13.4	40,232	8.1	299,384	86,710	-6.8	19,853	18,087	17,673
West Virginia	49,611	10.8	9,368	-4.4	78,563	-9.8	24,328	5.7	52,139	45,727	10.3	8,017	10,103	6,040
Wisconsin	129,128	-7.8	32,300	-7.1	200,917	1.6	48,544	13.4	133,827	101,760	-11.7	36,838	18,460	11,721
Wyoming	20,038	-2.9	6,471	5.2	21,994	-1.2	3,946	9.6	23,993	15,341	-2.0	3,349	3,369	4,296

1/ Opening on hand at the beginning of year plus openings received during the year.
2/ Should not be interpreted as a measure of the total number of new job applications at Employment Service offices, since there are some types of applicants for whom written applications are not taken.
3/ Includes veterans of all wars.

Table 2. Nonagricultural Placements, January-December 1963

State	Industry Division							Handicapped	Women	Short-time
	Total	Construction	Manufacturing	Wholesale and Retail Trade	Service		All Other 1/			
					Total	Domestic				
Total	6581060	459926	1424630	1546043	2545053	1394674	605408	278414	2814559	2078316
Alabama	121455	14787	23153	29605	47276	29415	6634	2524	52720	35239
Alaska	10031	391	1498	1648	3079	1901	3415	313	4674	1566
Arizona	115108	7210	11612	32521	48755	26314	15010	5378	48003	28375
Arkansas	107821	11823	25913	24891	35570	21561	9624	5141	39998	39221
California	784412	71617	120023	176329	405448	178123	60995	22280	309340	333329
Colorado	93265	8437	11619	26898	28955	13740	17356	3516	26150	34821
Connecticut	98164	5772	29603	25879	30339	17129	6571	5877	42495	21628
Delaware	7099	939	1945	1344	2365	1691	506	122	3416	1052
Dist. of Col.	47623	984	885	11376	25948	19123	8430	2400	24190	17001
Florida	263488	28205	37416	70144	104842	56172	22881	10207	119504	54739
Georgia	161428	22074	40975	38153	50850	36029	9376	4712	64018	24939
Guam	1094	517	44	31	14	3	488	1	96	—
Hawaii	13994	2871	2930	3233	3168	867	1758	894	6296	757
Idaho	39051	2382	7585	9770	12987	8350	6327	1515	14605	11160
Illinois	213266	4696	65454	55297	67329	21493	20490	7730	73899	58566
Indiana	108203	5071	34771	28031	32350	17576	7980	4665	46025	20849
Iowa	88568	9100	19049	26532	23530	10103	10357	5884	28649	30470
Kansas	86706	10895	12423	21170	27752	16899	14466	3120	28287	32135
Kentucky	67100	4750	17708	14514	22356	12695	7772	2447	27937	14732
Louisiana	88983	9801	10421	26973	31600	19118	10188	3145	34870	29644
Maine	25186	3021	9897	5240	5106	1783	1922	736	10484	2122
Maryland	89302	11428	23157	16629	32188	19520	5900	1469	41933	14663
Massachusetts	168219	8353	51442	40389	58135	15594	9900	3908	84862	23466
Michigan	179775	8962	47272	49292	62459	25953	11790	11662	66130	50677
Minnesota	96552	3992	33474	21377	22401	10925	15308	5069	38497	25486
Mississippi	110391	10311	28656	22376	40694	27942	8354	2920	51261	23456
Missouri	103827	4156	30972	26030	30322	12864	12347	4270	39741	27183
Montana	33103	3181	4073	8306	9851	4245	7692	2079	9856	8246
Nebraska	61782	10418	10579	16869	13237	6369	10679	5950	13444	19579
Nevada	35699	1827	1522	8341	19958	8346	4057	1067	15958	12186
New Hampshire	16768	1840	7275	2927	3683	528	1043	925	7561	343
New Jersey	141713	5420	38350	25337	66260	41700	6346	4593	80902	35927
New Mexico	46822	5770	2965	12172	18106	11079	7809	1653	14482	19807
New York	838157	15459	172732	132813	473045	306246	44108	40701	498183	377210
North Carolina	151137	21544	54224	26891	37458	23299	11020	5521	69234	17544
North Dakota	29730	3584	2120	8369	8504	4614	7153	1729	10313	9514
Ohio	232851	16158	55709	67412	75446	42434	18126	10591	80365	97429
Oklahoma	164949	18135	18077	46049	62407	35049	20281	12069	44199	94588
Oregon	76945	4293	18401	19752	23489	12238	11010	3996	27997	17804
Pennsylvania	259868	12249	78623	69249	83602	40409	16145	16486	125296	75038
Puerto Rico	48195	8558	16557	5813	6952	2899	10315	809	18980	2611
Rhode Island	32587	1381	15043	6233	8072	4681	1858	2705	17050	6903
South Carolina	85453	11588	25670	14680	29263	22252	4252	2382	42334	13300
South Dakota	25294	4097	2474	6866	7661	4738	4196	985	6032	11745
Tennessee	118304	9719	37119	27845	35874	21891	7747	5272	53684	21936
Texas	470733	51907	63234	138001	173375	108357	44216	22367	178398	180194
Utah	46792	3194	8041	11905	17281	5963	6431	1939	19148	11222
Vermont	15772	2753	2321	3608	5806	2176	1284	530	5480	2188
Virginia	107339	14441	21445	24738	37640	24076	9075	3135	46542	21254
Virgin Islands	1458	232	293	259	452	234	222	22	780	3
Washington	86710	2949	15446	19129	23134	11947	26052	3725	26340	32335
West Virginia	45727	1902	7315	11549	20669	14591	4292	1274	25339	16446
Wisconsin	101760	2649	44066	21578	23127	8719	10340	3795	44389	10078
Wyoming	15341	2133	1059	3680	4955	2711	3514	309	4205	5610

1/ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; government; establishments not elsewhere classified.

Table 3. Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Market Areas

NOVEMBER 1963 AND NOVEMBER 1962

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE Number		UNEMPLOYMENT Number		UNEMPLOYMENT Rate 1/		EMPLOYMENT TOTAL 2/ Number		EMPLOYMENT Nonagricultural Wage and Salary Total		EMPLOYMENT Nonagricultural Wage and Salary Manufacturing	
	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Total - 150 Areas	46,505.4	45,997.0	2,184.6	2,269.5	xxx	xxx	44,318.8	43,727.6	38,775.9	38,197.1	11,818.9	11,800.0
Alabama												
*Birmingham	243.0	245.6	12.5	16.7	5.1	6.8	230.5	228.9	199.2	197.6	59.7	59.0
*Mobile	119.3	116.9	5.6	6.0	4.7	5.1	113.7	110.9	93.4	91.7	17.4	15.6
Arizona												
*Phoenix	286.4	275.7	11.4	13.0	4.0	4.7	275.0	262.7	218.7	207.3	41.9	40.0
Arkansas												
*Little Rock-North Little Rock	112.5	106.9	3.2	3.7	2.8	3.4	109.3	103.2	92.3	87.6	17.8	16.2
California												
Fresno	145.0	139.8	9.8	9.5	6.7	6.8	135.2	130.3	95.8	91.0	17.2	15.2
Los Angeles-Long Beach	3,175.3	3,082.9	174.7	158.1	5.5	5.1	3,000.6	2,924.8	2,648.4	2,581.0	858.2	861.1
Sacramento	221.5	212.1	11.6	9.9	5.2	4.7	209.9	202.2	186.8	179.3	32.4	31.1
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	293.1	284.3	18.2	17.3	6.2	6.1	274.9	267.0	213.6	206.4	36.3	35.8
San Diego	342.0	341.8	24.5	26.0	7.2	7.6	317.5	315.8	266.1	263.9	56.2	59.7
San Francisco-Oakland	1,291.8	1,251.6	70.5	60.1	5.5	4.8	1,221.3	1,191.5	1,077.4	1,049.4	197.8	196.4
San Jose	307.0	288.2	16.9	15.0	5.5	5.2	290.1	273.2	252.8	237.8	84.7	84.0
Stockton	96.8	94.1	8.3	7.7	8.6	8.1	88.5	86.4	67.2	65.1	12.0	12.0
Colorado												
**Denver	441.3	441.8	16.5	17.1	3.7	3.9	424.8	424.7	367.2	361.5	70.1	69.4
Connecticut												
*Bridgeport	153.1	148.5	7.5	7.2	4.9	4.8	145.6	141.3	131.7	127.9	70.0	68.2
*Hartford	295.1	287.9	9.7	9.7	3.3	3.4	285.4	278.2	259.3	253.7	92.6	94.2
*New Britain	47.1	46.7	2.2	2.2	4.7	4.7	44.9	44.5	41.2	40.9	23.9	24.0
*New Haven	151.2	152.0	6.7	6.6	4.4	4.3	144.5	145.4	128.1	129.5	41.9	44.8
*Stamford	79.5	77.6	2.8	3.0	3.5	3.9	76.7	74.6	63.9	63.3	24.1	24.5
*Waterbury	80.8	81.0	4.4	4.6	5.4	5.7	76.4	76.4	68.5	68.6	37.9	38.6
Delaware												
*Wilmington	171.4	166.5	5.5	5.5	3.2	3.3	165.9	161.0	141.0	136.7	57.4	55.5
District of Columbia												
*Washington	961.8	934.8	22.7	21.5	2.4	2.3	939.1	913.3	837.0	813.9	38.1	38.0
Florida												
*Jacksonville	186.8	184.9	6.0	6.5	3.2	3.5	180.8	178.4	151.4	149.1	21.1	21.0
*Miami 3/	446.5	457.2	36.8	47.8	8.2	10.5	409.7	409.4	322.0	320.8	46.1	46.7
*Tampa-St. Petersburg	288.9	288.2	11.1	14.6	3.8	5.1	277.8	273.6	212.5	209.4	38.9	38.9
Georgia												
*Atlanta	497.1	475.2	14.3	15.3	2.9	3.2	482.8	459.9	425.7	403.9	98.3	91.8
Augusta	79.1	78.7	3.0	3.1	3.8	3.9	76.1	75.6	63.8	63.4	24.6	24.0
Columbus	65.5	64.6	2.6	2.8	4.0	4.3	62.9	61.8	51.6	50.6	16.8	16.9
Macon	73.2	72.7	2.6	2.4	3.6	3.3	70.6	70.3	59.4	59.1	11.8	11.9
*Savannah	68.2	66.4	3.2	3.3	4.6	4.9	65.0	63.2	55.0	53.3	14.8	14.3
Hawaii												
Honolulu	202.5	200.0	9.4	8.7	4.6	4.3	193.1	191.3	164.6	162.9	14.3	13.8
Illinois												
*Chicago	2,940.9	2,930.2	117.0	115.0	4.0	3.9	2,823.9	2,815.2	2,549.9	2,542.0	865.9	871.6
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	118.5	115.7	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	115.0	112.2	99.7	97.1	39.5	36.3
Peoria	120.7	117.2	4.2	4.9	3.5	4.2	116.5	112.3	100.5	96.9	40.1	38.9
Rockford	94.3	92.6	3.1	3.6	3.2	3.9	91.2	89.0	77.9	77.3	39.9	39.5

Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Market Areas

NOVEMBER 1963 AND NOVEMBER 1962

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE Number		UNEMPLOYMENT Number		UNEMPLOYMENT Rate 1/		EMPLOYMENT TOTAL 2/ Number		EMPLOYMENT Nonagricultural Wage and Salary Total		EMPLOYMENT Nonagricultural Wage and Salary Manufacturing	
	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Indiana												
*Evansville	78.1	77.2	3.1	3.1	4.0	4.0	75.0	74.1	66.0	65.1	25.3	24.7
*Fort Wayne	102.8	103.8	3.3	4.0	3.2	3.9	99.5	99.8	89.3	89.7	35.7	36.7
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	208.3	209.2	9.3	13.0	4.5	6.2	199.0	196.2	182.5	179.5	97.3	95.1
*Indianapolis	349.5	348.1	11.7	12.8	3.3	3.7	337.8	335.3	308.3	306.4	103.7	104.4
*South Bend	93.4	93.1	3.2	2.8	3.4	3.0	90.2	90.3	83.1	83.2	36.6	38.5
Terre Haute	43.3	42.9	2.1	2.2	4.8	5.1	41.2	40.7	35.5	35.0	10.2	9.9
Iowa												
Cedar Rapids	67.4	66.0	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.1	66.3	64.6	53.7	52.3	23.3	22.1
*Des Moines	123.5	122.2	2.6	3.0	2.1	2.5	120.9	119.2	103.7	101.8	21.2	20.8
Kansas												
*Wichita	139.1	139.5	5.1	5.4	3.7	3.8	134.0	134.1	119.5	119.6	41.8	42.7
Kentucky												
*Louisville	300.0	296.8	12.0	14.6	4.0	4.9	288.0	282.2	255.5	249.8	89.6	86.1
Louisiana												
*Baton Rouge	87.9	87.9	3.4	3.9	3.9	4.5	84.5	84.0	71.8	71.4	15.2	16.2
*New Orleans	347.3	345.7	17.1	20.6	4.9	6.0	330.2	325.1	297.1	292.3	49.8	46.7
*Shreveport	105.1	106.3	4.2	5.5	3.9	5.1	100.9	100.8	76.2	75.9	9.7	9.2
Maine												
*Portland	61.4	61.5	2.6	2.5	4.2	4.1	58.8	59.0	52.5	52.8	12.1	12.8
Maryland												
*Baltimore	753.9	738.7	31.5	37.0	4.2	5.0	722.4	701.7	652.3	635.0	190.6	188.0
Massachusetts												
Boston	1,241.0	1,231.4	56.2	52.0	4.5	4.2	1,184.8	1,179.4	1,060.8	1,055.4	278.0	292.3
Brockton	49.7	49.4	3.8	3.4	7.6	6.9	45.9	46.0	39.2	39.3	15.8	16.0
Fall River	55.8	57.1	5.0	4.8	9.0	8.4	50.8	52.3	43.1	44.7	23.0	24.6
Lawrence-Haverhill	87.6	89.0	6.0	5.8	6.9	6.5	81.6	83.2	73.6	75.1	42.6	45.0
Lowell	52.0	51.4	4.0	3.2	7.7	6.1	48.0	48.2	43.5	43.6	19.6	21.2
New Bedford	63.8	64.9	5.0	5.4	7.8	8.2	58.8	59.5	50.7	51.4	26.3	27.3
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	205.9	204.1	12.7	14.4	6.1	7.1	193.2	189.7	174.7	172.8	67.3	68.3
Worcester	131.9	134.0	7.5	7.7	5.7	5.7	124.4	126.3	112.1	114.1	47.1	50.2
Michigan												
Battle Creek	63.2	62.3	3.2	3.7	5.1	5.9	60.0	58.6	51.3	49.5	22.9	22.0
*Detroit	1,406.3	1,380.4	52.0	67.0	3.7	4.9	1,354.3	1,313.4	1,233.2	1,193.6	511.4	493.1
*Flint	145.4	142.2	2.4	3.1	1.7	2.2	143.0	139.1	128.9	125.4	76.0	73.8
*Grand Rapids	146.0	143.7	3.2	4.7	2.2	3.3	142.8	139.0	124.3	120.9	53.7	50.6
Kalamazoo	69.8	70.0	2.2	2.4	3.2	3.4	65.6	67.6	59.5	59.1	25.8	26.2
*Lansing	115.6	112.7	3.1	3.7	2.7	3.3	112.5	109.0	97.0	93.6	32.0	29.9
*Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	54.4	54.9	2.3	2.5	4.2	4.6	52.1	52.4	45.8	45.8	24.3	25.2
*Saginaw	68.7	67.8	1.4	2.4	2.0	3.5	67.3	65.4	58.0	56.2	26.2	24.8
Minnesota												
*Duluth-Superior	62.3	62.0	3.8	4.6	6.1	7.4	58.5	57.4	49.6	48.5	9.2	8.4
*Minneapolis-St. Paul	702.3	693.0	23.3	22.0	3.3	3.2	679.0	671.0	605.7	598.1	160.0	159.8
Mississippi												
*Jackson	92.4	92.2	2.6	3.1	2.8	3.3	89.8	89.1	71.7	71.1	11.5	11.5
Missouri												
*Kansas City	479.7	474.4	24.6	24.1	5.1	5.1	455.1	450.3	408.4	405.5	109.9	108.8
*St. Louis	874.4	866.4	35.7	41.9	4.1	4.8	838.7	824.5	743.7	726.5	261.5	250.7
Nebraska												
*Omaha	199.2	201.3	6.2	6.7	3.1	3.3	193.0	194.6	166.5	167.2	35.6	36.1
New Hampshire												
*Manchester	48.7	49.3	2.2	1.9	4.5	3.7	46.5	47.4	42.5	43.3	16.5	17.3

Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Market Areas

NOVEMBER 1963 AND NOVEMBER 1962

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
New Jersey												
Atlantic City	69.6	70.6	6.3	5.9	9.1	8.4	63.3	64.7	48.7	49.5	9.0	9.0
*Jersey City	301.5	302.7	19.5	17.4	6.5	5.7	282.0	285.3	257.1	259.1	116.2	118.4
*Newark	830.5	831.8	44.4	40.9	5.3	4.9	786.1	790.9	677.0	679.3	233.6	244.5
*New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	233.4	233.0	12.1	12.6	5.2	5.4	221.3	220.4	193.9	192.4	87.4	88.5
*Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	500.1	493.5	29.0	24.5	5.8	5.0	471.1	469.0	394.8	392.0	164.4	170.7
*Trenton	133.6	130.8	5.9	6.6	4.4	5.0	127.7	124.2	113.0	109.7	38.0	36.8
New Mexico												
*Albuquerque	107.1	100.3	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	103.2	96.6	90.1	84.1	8.7	7.9
New York												
*Albany-Schenectady-Troy	274.7	277.1	10.1	11.3	3.7	4.1	264.6	265.8	229.7	230.7	62.5	62.4
*Binghamton	91.2	93.0	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.6	87.1	88.7	76.3	77.7	34.5	36.5
*Buffalo	508.9	513.8	28.8	34.3	5.7	6.7	480.1	479.5	425.5	424.3	167.4	165.8
*New York	5,317.8	5,303.6	270.6	261.8	5.1	4.9	5,047.2	5,041.8	4,402.1	4,385.8	1,127.9	1,151.4
*Rochester	279.1	272.3	7.2	7.2	2.6	2.6	271.9	265.1	241.6	234.9	111.7	110.5
*Syracuse	230.7	232.6	10.2	10.3	4.4	4.4	220.5	222.3	188.2	189.1	63.4	66.4
*Utica-Rome	127.8	130.2	7.1	7.3	5.6	5.6	120.7	122.9	102.5	104.2	37.4	39.7
North Carolina												
Asheville	55.9	54.5	2.4	2.3	4.3	4.1	53.5	52.2	44.5	43.3	16.9	16.8
Charlotte	138.9	136.8	4.0	4.2	2.8	3.0	134.9	132.6	118.1	116.1	29.4	28.8
Durham	53.1	51.8	2.6	2.1	4.8	4.1	50.5	49.7	43.4	42.6	12.9	12.7
Greensboro-High Point	126.3	122.8	3.2	3.0	2.5	2.4	123.1	119.8	106.3	103.7	45.0	44.3
Winston-Salem	92.3	92.6	2.7	2.4	2.9	2.5	89.6	90.2	78.0	78.7	38.4	39.3
Ohio												
*Akron	205.0	205.0	7.7	8.3	3.8	4.0	197.3	196.7	177.5	176.3	80.4	80.6
*Canton	128.7	129.3	7.4	9.3	5.7	7.2	121.3	120.0	106.5	105.1	49.7	49.1
*Cincinnati	463.3	465.7	18.6	20.0	4.0	4.3	444.7	445.7	396.4	397.3	143.5	145.0
*Cleveland	811.5	806.5	31.3	38.4	3.9	4.8	780.2	768.1	705.3	694.6	272.0	267.8
*Columbus	321.5	316.5	10.3	10.7	3.2	3.4	311.2	305.8	278.5	273.1	74.0	73.3
*Dayton	299.0	300.1	9.2	10.3	3.1	3.4	289.8	289.8	256.9	256.0	102.9	103.3
Hamilton-Middletown	72.2	70.0	5.3	5.8	7.3	8.3	66.9	64.2	58.3	55.8	27.3	26.2
Lorain-Elyria	75.5	72.5	3.9	4.8	5.2	6.6	71.6	67.7	61.9	58.4	30.5	29.5
Steubenville-Weirton	63.6	62.9	3.8	4.3	6.0	6.8	59.8	58.6	53.3	52.3	29.4	28.9
*Toledo	188.9	188.3	8.3	9.2	4.4	4.9	180.6	179.1	160.1	157.6	59.8	58.2
*Youngstown-Warren	185.0	188.9	11.4	18.2	6.2	9.6	173.6	170.7	153.7	150.6	69.4	66.9
Oklahoma												
*Oklahoma City	237.2	233.2	8.1	7.8	3.4	3.3	229.1	225.4	194.9	191.6	25.0	23.4
*Tulsa	175.3	173.8	7.4	7.5	4.2	4.3	167.9	166.3	139.1	137.3	29.9	29.1
Oregon												
*Portland	350.0	347.1	15.8	15.6	4.5	4.5	334.2	331.5	282.6	278.3	66.3	65.3
Pennsylvania												
*Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	221.3	220.8	11.1	11.6	5.0	5.3	210.2	209.2	187.3	186.1	94.1	94.3
*Altoona	52.2	52.6	4.8	6.8	9.2	12.9	47.4	45.8	41.7	40.1	11.5	11.8
*Erie	97.5	96.7	6.4	6.8	6.6	7.0	91.1	89.9	79.4	78.1	36.8	36.2
*Harrisburg	171.3	170.5	6.9	7.0	4.0	4.1	164.4	163.5	148.5	147.7	33.0	32.7
*Johnstown	86.8	87.4	6.7	11.7	7.7	13.4	80.1	75.7	68.2	64.1	23.3	20.5
*Lancaster	125.4	123.5	3.8	3.6	3.0	2.9	121.6	119.9	100.2	98.6	48.0	48.4
*Philadelphia	1,897.2	1,891.1	110.3	113.7	5.8	6.0	1,786.9	1,777.4	1,552.9	1,543.5	537.7	543.7
*Pittsburgh	917.8	926.6	64.7	91.8	7.0	9.9	853.1	834.8	758.6	740.9	263.0	254.3
*Reading	125.7	124.8	4.6	4.9	3.7	3.9	121.1	119.9	104.6	104.1	51.9	51.9
*Scranton	96.6	97.2	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.3	86.8	87.2	76.1	76.6	30.8	30.7
*Wilkes-Barre--Hazleton	132.8	132.1	11.5	12.4	8.7	9.4	121.3	119.7	106.4	105.8	43.5	42.8
*York	105.4	105.8	4.8	5.1	4.6	4.8	100.6	100.7	84.9	85.7	39.9	41.4
Puerto Rico												
Mayaquez	28.9	27.6	4.0	3.7	13.8	13.4	24.9	23.9	18.5	17.5	8.3	7.5
Ponce	42.3	42.4	6.6	6.6	15.6	15.6	35.7	35.8	25.3	25.3	8.1	8.5
San Juan	225.4	222.3	13.1	13.4	5.8	6.0	212.3	208.9	177.5	173.8	30.4	30.1

Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Market Areas

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STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962	Nov.P/ 1963	Nov. 1962
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Rhode Island												
**Providence-Pawtucket	357.7	359.9	20.5	22.3	5.7	6.2	337.2	337.6	304.0	304.2	129.9	132.1
South Carolina												
*Charleston	81.5	78.1	3.5	3.1	4.3	4.0	78.0	75.0	61.9	59.6	9.9	9.4
*Greenville	96.6	98.0	4.1	3.6	4.2	3.7	92.5	94.4	77.8	78.9	35.7	35.2
Tennessee												
*Chattanooga	121.4	119.3	7.5	8.5	6.2	7.1	113.9	110.8	96.9	93.6	41.0	38.7
*Knoxville	147.4	143.1	5.7	6.3	3.9	4.4	141.7	136.8	120.5	115.9	42.7	41.5
*Memphis	257.5	249.9	8.4	10.0	3.3	4.0	249.1	239.9	205.4	197.3	46.9	45.2
*Nashville	181.2	178.4	5.6	6.3	3.1	3.5	175.6	172.1	153.7	150.3	43.4	41.2
Texas												
Austin	94.3	89.6	3.7	3.5	3.9	3.8	90.6	86.1	73.9	69.4	5.5	5.4
Beaumont-Port Arthur	117.0	117.1	6.9	8.6	5.9	7.3	110.1	108.5	96.9	95.8	35.3	34.2
Corpus Christi	74.4	75.7	3.4	3.9	4.5	5.1	71.0	71.8	59.0	59.4	8.7	8.7
*Dallas	529.4	510.7	19.5	20.0	3.7	3.9	509.9	490.7	443.7	425.6	107.5	103.7
El Paso	101.0	101.0	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.2	96.0	95.7	82.2	82.4	15.9	15.0
*Fort Worth	241.2	234.4	10.9	11.7	4.5	5.0	230.3	222.7	192.0	185.3	54.2	48.7
*Houston	599.7	573.7	24.1	23.2	4.0	4.0	575.6	550.5	497.6	470.4	91.3	91.2
*San Antonio	226.6	226.0	10.7	11.7	4.7	5.2	215.9	214.3	184.6	183.3	24.1	23.4
Utah												
*Salt Lake City	190.4	185.5	6.5	5.9	3.4	3.2	183.9	179.6	160.3	156.2	30.0	30.2
Virginia												
Newport News-Hampton	87.1	86.8	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.8	84.8	84.4	75.4	75.0	24.9	25.3
**Norfolk-Portsmouth	187.1	185.6	5.2	5.3	2.8	2.8	181.9	180.3	159.3	158.1	17.0	17.0
**Richmond	215.0	210.1	4.3	4.5	2.0	2.1	210.7	205.6	182.3	178.2	44.2	43.7
**Roanoke	74.3	72.0	2.0	2.5	2.7	3.5	72.3	69.5	64.5	61.9	15.1	14.6
Washington												
*Seattle	495.4	494.3	35.3	26.6	7.1	5.4	460.1	467.7	400.3	407.3	117.1	127.0
*Spokane	95.6	94.2	5.8	6.5	6.1	6.9	89.8	87.7	74.9	73.2	12.4	11.9
*Tacoma	102.3	101.2	7.1	5.7	6.9	5.6	95.2	95.5	79.7	79.9	17.2	17.0
West Virginia												
*Charleston	92.4	92.3	5.7	6.2	6.2	6.7	86.7	86.1	76.8	76.1	22.6	21.4
*Huntington-Ashland	89.9	89.3	7.4	9.1	8.2	10.2	82.5	80.2	70.1	67.1	24.0	21.9
*Wheeling	65.7	67.7	5.0	7.2	7.5	10.6	60.7	60.5	50.7	50.0	16.6	15.8
Wisconsin												
*Kenosha	44.5	41.5	1.2	1.1	2.7	2.7	43.3	40.4	39.0	36.1	23.0	21.5
*Madison	106.6	103.1	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.6	103.7	100.4	85.8	82.6	13.1	13.2
*Milwaukee	527.7	527.2	18.0	18.3	3.4	3.5	509.7	508.9	460.2	459.2	184.9	187.8
*Racine	54.4	53.2	2.0	1.9	3.7	3.6	52.4	51.3	46.2	45.0	21.7	21.4

NOTES:

* Nonagricultural wage and salary employment statistics for these areas have been developed entirely or in part under the current employment statistics program operated jointly by State employment security agencies, the Bureau of Employment Security, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

** Nonagricultural wage and salary employment statistics for these areas have been developed entirely or in part under the BLS employment statistics program jointly with an agency other than the State employment security agency.

P/ Data for November 1963 are preliminary.

1/ Unemployment Rate--Unemployment as a percent of work force. Unemployment rates shown are not seasonally adjusted.

2/ Includes persons involved in labor-management disputes.

3/ Work force, employment, and unemployment data include Cuban refugees.

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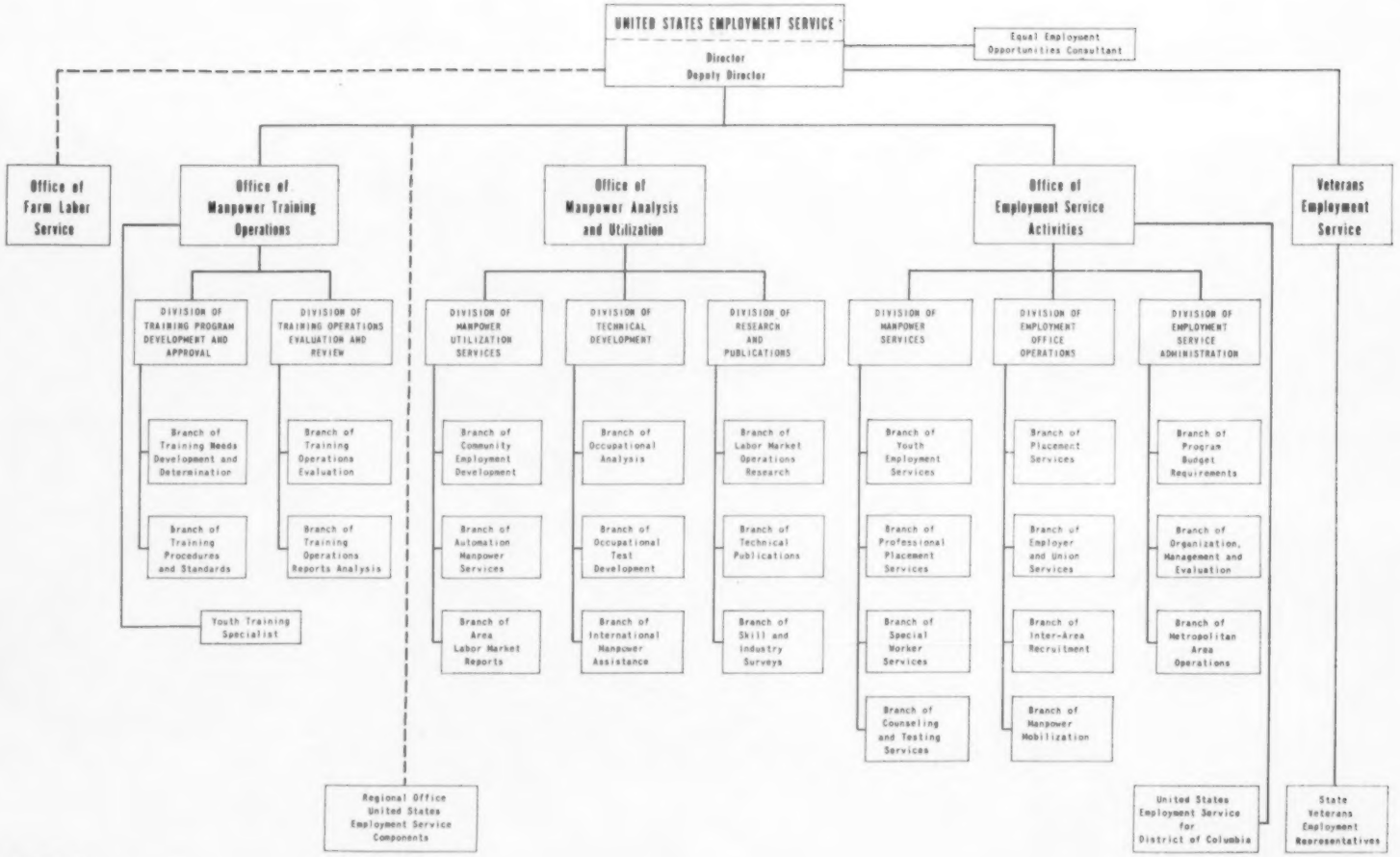
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Manpower Administration
BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
United States Employment Service
Organization Chart


UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
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Deputy Director
Equal Employment Opportunities Consultant
Office of Farm Labor Service
Office of Manpower Training Operations
Office of Manpower Analysis and Utilization
Office of Employment Service Activities
Veterans Employment Service
DIVISION OF TRAINING PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT AND APPROVAL
DIVISION OF TRAINING OPERATIONS EVALUATION AND REVIEW
Branch of Training Needs Development and Determination
Branch of Training Procedures and Standards
Branch of Training Operations Evaluation
Branch of Training Operations Reports Analysis
Youth Training Specialist
DIVISION OF MANPOWER UTILIZATION SERVICES
DIVISION OF TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT
DIVISION OF RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS
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